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ABRIDGMENT

OF

MR. LOCKE's

K

E S S A Y

CONCERNING

HUMAN UNDERSTANDING.

A NEW EDITION, with ADDITIONS.

CAREFULLY REVISED and CORRECTED.

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M. DCC. LXX.



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Mª JOHN LOCKE.

HONOURED SIR,

E SEND you this imperfect draught of your excellent Essay concerning Human Understanding; which, I must confess, falls as much short of the perfection, as it does of the length of the original. Nevertheless, as I lately intimated to you, (and you were pleased to think, that what I proposed in reference to this Design, would not be wholly lost Labour), I am not without Hopes, that it may in this contracted Form, prove in some Measure serviceable to that noble End, which you have so successfully aimed at in it, viz. The Advancement of real and useful Knowledge. The inducement which moved me to think of abridging it, was a Consideration purely extrinsical to the Work itself: and in Effect no other than this; that it would be better fuited to the Ease and Convenience of some fort of Readers, when reduced into this narrow Compass. In order to this, I thought the First Book, which is employed in refuting the common Opinion of Innate Notions and Ideas, might he best spared in this Abridgment; especially, since the Reader may be convinced by what he shall find here, that such a Supposition is at least needless, in regard he may attain to all the Knowledge he has, or finds himfelf ca-

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pable of, without the help of any fuch Innate Ideas. Besides this, I have retrenched most of the larger Explications; and some useful Hints, and instructive Theories, I have wholly omitted; not because they are less considerable in themselves, but because they seemed not so necessary to be insisted on in this A. bridgment, considered as a previous Instrument, and preparatory Help, to guide and conduct the Mind in its Search after Truth and Knowledge. I did particularly pass by that accurate Discourse, concerning the Freedom and Determination of the Will, contained in Chap. 21. L. 2. because I found it too long to be inferted here at large, and too weighty and momentous to be but flightly, and imperfectly represented. This, I hope, will prove no prejudice to the Effay itself, fince none, I presume, will think it reasonable to form a Judgment of the whole Work- from this Abridgment of it: And I persuade myself, that few Renders will be content with this Epitome, who can conveniently furnish themselves with the Esfay at large. However, I am apt to think, that this alone will ferve to make the Way to Knowledge fomewhat more plain and easy; and afford such Helps for the Improvement of Reason, as are perhaps in vain sought after in those Books, which profess to teach the Art of Reasoning. But nevertheless, whether you shall think fit to let it come abroad under the Difadvantages that attend it in this Ferm, I must leave you to judge. I shall only add, that I think my own Pains abundantly recompensed by the agreeable, as well as instructive Entertainment, which this nearer View, and closer Inspection into your Esfay, afforded me: aholi to Att

And I am not a little pleased, that it has given me this Opportunity of expressing the just Value and E-steem I have for it, as well as the Honour and Respect I have for its Author. I am,

Honoured SIR,

Your very humble,

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JOHN WYNNE.

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INTRODUCTION.

1. CINCE it is the Understanding that fets man above the rest of sensible beings, and gives him all the advantage and dominion which he has over them; it is certainly a subject, even for its nobleness, worth the enquiring into.

2. My purpose therefore is to enquire into the 0riginal, Certainty, and Extent of human knowledge; together with the grounds and degrees of Belief, Opinion, and Affent, which I shall do in the following

method.

3. First, I shall enquire into the Original of those Ideas or notions, which a man observes, and is conscious to himself he has in his mind, and the Ways whereby the understanding comes to be furnished with

Secondly, what Knowledge the understanding hath by those ideas; and the certainty, evidence, and extent of it.

Thirdly, I shall make some enquiry into the nature and grounds of Faith and Opinion.

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4. If by this enquiry into the nature of the understanding, I can discover the powers thereof how far they reach, and where they fail us, it may be of use to prevail with the busy mind of man to be more cautious in meddling with things exceeding its comprehension, to stop when it is at the utmost extent of its tether, and to fit down in a quiet ignorance of those things, which, upon examination, are found

found to be beyond the reach of our capacities We should not then perhaps be so forward, out of an affectation of Univer fal Knowledge, to perplex our felves with disputes about things to which our understandings are not fuited, and of which we cannot frame in our minds any clear or distinct perceptions or whereof, (as it has perhaps too often happened) we have not any notions at all: But should learn to content ourselves with what is attainable by us in this flate acts too blener of a respect between box abi

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5. For though the Comprehension of our understanding comes exceeding short of the vast extent of things; yet we shall have cause enough to magnify the bonntiful Author of our being, for that portion and degree of knowledge he has bestowed on us so far above all the rest of the Inhabitants of this our mansion. Men have reason to be well fatisfied with what God hath though fit for them, fince he has given them (as St. Peter fays, πάντα προς ζωήν και ευσεδιιαν) whatfoever is necessary for the conveniencies of Life, and information of Virtue; and has put within the reach of their discovery, the comfortable provision for this life, and the way that leads to a better. How short soever their knowledge may come of an universal, or perfect comprehension of whatsoever is. it yet fecures their great concernments, that they have light enough to lead them to the knowledge of their Maker, and the fight of their own duties. Men may find matter sufficient to busy their heads, and employ their hands with variety, delight, and fatiffaction; if they will not boldly quarrel with their own constitution, and throw away the bleffings their hands are filled with, because they are not big enough 2 023

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to grasp every thing. We shall not have much reafon to complain of the narrowness of our minds, if we will but employ them about what may be of use to us; for of that they are very capable: And it will be an unpardonable, as well as childish peevishness. if we undervalue the advantages of our knowledge. and neglect to improve it to the ends for which it was given us, because there are some things that are fer out of the reach of it. It will be no excuse to an idle and untoward fervant, who would not attend his business by candle light, to plead that he had not broad fun shine. The candle that is set up in us, shines bright enough for all our purposes. The difcoveries we can make with this, ought to fatisfy us. And we shall then use our understandings right, when we entertain all objects in that way and proportion, that they are fuited to our faculties; and upon those grounds they are capable of being proposed to us; and not peremptorily or intemperately require demonstration, and demand certainty, where probability only is to be had, and which is sufficient to govern all our concernments. If we will ditbelieve every thing, because we cannot certainly know all things; we shall do somewhat as wifely as he who would not use his legs, but sit still and perish because he had no wings to fly

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6. When we know our own strength, we shall the better know what to undertake with hopes of success. And when we have well surveyed the powers of our own minds, we shall not be inclined either to sit still, and not set our thoughts on work at all in despair of knowing any thing; nor, on the other side, question every thing, and disclaim all knowledge, because

cause some things are not to be understood. Our Bulinels here, is not to know all things, but those things which concern our conduct: If we can find out those measures whereby a rational creature, put into that state which man is in, in this world, may and ought to govern his opinions and actions depending thereon, we need not be troubled that some other

things escape our knowledge.

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7. This was that which gave the first rife to this estay concerning the understanding. For I thought that the first step towards satisfying several enquiries the mind of man was very apt to run into, was to take a furvey of our understandings, examine our own powers, and fee to what things they are adapted. 'Till that was done, I suspected we began at the wrong end, and in vain fought for fatisfaction in a quiet and secure possession of truths that most concerned us, whilst we let loose our thoughts in the vast ocean of being, as if all that boundless extent were the natural and undoubted possessions of our understandings; wherein there was nothing exempt from its decisions, or that escaped its comprehensi-Thus men, extending their enquiries beyond their capacities, and letting their thoughts wander into those depths where they can find no fure tooting, it is no wonder that they raise questions and multiply diffutes, which, never coming to any clear resolution, are proper only to continue and increase their doubts, and to confirm them at last in perfect /cepticifm. Whereas were the capacities of our understandings well confidered, the extent of our knowledge once discovered, and the horizon found, which sets bounds between the enlightned and dark parts of things, between

10 INTRODUCTION.

tween what is, and what is not comprehensible by us, men would perhaps with less scruple acquiesce in the avowing ignorance of the one, and employ their thoughts and discourse, with more advantage and santisfaction, in the other.

N. B. Several IMPROVEMENTS are made to this Edition, which the Reader will observe are marked ed (thus ') with an inverted comma.



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OF

LOCKE'S ESSAY.

BOOK II.

CHAP. I.

Of Ideas in General, and their Original.

§ 1.

BY the term idea, I mean whatever is the object of the understanding, when a man thinks; or whatever it is which the mind can be employed about in thinking.

- § 2. I prefume it will be easily granted me, that there are such ideas in mens minds: Every one is conscious of them in himself; and mens words and actions will satisfy him that they are in others. Our first inquiry then shall be, how they come into the mind.
- § 3. It is an established opinion among some men, that there are in the understanding certain innate principles, some primary notions, (xource surveice) characters, as it were stampt upon the mind of man, which the soul receives in its very first being, and brings into the world with it.
- § 4. This opinion is accurately discussed, and refuted in the first book of this essay, to which I shall refer the reader, that desires satisfaction in this particular.

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\$ 5. It shall be sufficient here to show, how men, barely by the use of their natural faculties, may attain to all the knowledge they have, without the help of any innate impressions; and may arrive at certainty without any such original notions or principles. For I imagine, any one will easily grant, that it would be impertinent to suppose the ideas of colours innate in a creature to whom God hath given sight, and a power to receive them by the eyes from external objects. I shall shew by what ways and degrees all other ideas come into the mind; for which I shall appeal to every one's own experience and observation.

for Let us then suppose the mind to be, as we say, white pager, void of all characters, without any ideas: How comes it to be surnished? whence has it all the materials of reason and knowledge? To this I answer, in one word, from experience and observation. This, when employed about external sensible objects, we may call sensation: By this we have the ideas of bitter, sweet, yellow, hard, &c. which are common and alled sensible qualities, because conveyed into the mind by the senses. The same experience, when employed about the internal operations of the mind, perceived, and restected on by us, we may call Rissection. Hence we have the ideas of perception, thinking doubting, willing, reasoning, &c.

These two, viz. external material things, as the objects of sensation; and the operations of our own mind, as the objects of reflection, are to me the only originals from whence all our ideas take their beginnings. The understanding seems not to have the least glimmering of ideas, which it doth not receive from one of these two sources. These, when

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we have taken a full furvey of them, and their feveral modes and compositions, we shall find to contain our whole stock of ideas; and that we have nothing in our minds which did not come in one of these two ways.

6 8. He that attentively confiders the flate of a child, at his first coming into the world, will have bittle reason to think him stored with plenty of ideas, that are to be the matter of his future knowledge. 'Tis by degrees children come to be furnished with them from the objects they are conversant with. They are so surrounded with bodies that perpetually and diversely affect them, that some ideas will (whether they will or no) be imprinted on their minds. Light and colours, founds and tangible qualities, do continually folicite their proper senses, and force an entrance into the mind. 'Tis late commonly before children come to have ideas of the operation of their minds; and fome men have not any very clear or perfect ideas of the greatest part of them all Because, though they pass there continual floating visions, they make not impressions deep enough to leave in the mind clear and lasting ideas, till the understanding turns inward upon itielf, and reflects on its own operations, and makes them the objects of its own contemplation.

of 9. When a man first perceives, then he may be said to have ideas; having ideas, and perception, signifying the same thing. It is an opinion maintained by some, that the soul always thinks, and that it always has the actual perception of ideas as long as it exists: And that actual thinking is as inteparable from the soul, as actual extension is from the body. But whether the soul be supposed to exist antecedent,

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to, or coeval with, or some time after the first ru. diments or organization, or the beginnings of life in the body, I leave to be disputed by those, who have better thought of that matter. I confess myself to have one of those dull souls, that doth not perceive itself always to contemplate ideas: Nor can conceive it any more necessary for the soul always to think than for the body always to move: The perception of ideas being (as I conceive) to the foul, what motion is to the body, not its effence, but one of its operations: And therefore, though thinking be never fo much the proper action of the foul, yet it is not neceffary to suppose, that it should always think, always be in action. That perhaps is the privilege of the infinite author and preserver of all things, who never flumbers nor fleeps; but is not competent to any finite being. We know certainly by experience, that we fometimes think; and thence draw this infallible confequence, that there is fomething in us that has a power to think, but whether that fubstance perpeor no, we can be no farther affured than sence informs us.

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who so considently pronounce, that the human soul always thinks, how they come to know it: Nay, how they come to know it they themselves think, when they themselves do not perceive it. Can a man think, and not be conscious of it? If they say, the man thinks

and not be conscious of it? If they say, the man thinks always, but is not always conscious of it; they may as

well fay his body is extended without having parts.

For 'tis altogether as intelligible to fay, that a bedy

is extended without parts, as that any thing thinks

without being confeious of it, or perceiving that it does

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' fo They who talk thus, may, with as much reason,
' if it be necessary to their hypothesis, say, that a man
' is always hungry, but that he does not always feel
' it: Whereas, hunger consists in that very sensation,
' as thinking consists in being conscious that one
' thinks.'

its possible the soul may always think; but not always retain it in memory: And, I say, it is as possible the soul may not always think; and much more probable that it should sometimes not think, than that it should often think, and that a long while together, and not be conscious to itself the next moment after that it had thought. 'And it is hardly to be conceived, that our infinitely wise Creator, should make so admirable a faculty, as the power of thinking, to be so idly and uselessly employed, at least one fourth part of its time here, as to think constantly, without remembering any one of those thoughts whatever.'

foul thinks before the senses have furnished with ideas to think on; and as those are increased and retained, so it comes by exercise to improve its faculty of thinking in the several parts of it; as well as afterwards by compounding those ideas, and reflecting on its own operations, it increases its stock, as well as facility in remembering, imagining, reasoning, and other modes of thinking.

§ 13. 'If it shall be demanded then, when a man begins to have any ideas? I think the true answer is, when he first has any fensation. For since there appear not to be any ideas in the mind, before the

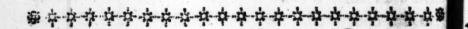
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- fenses have conveyed any in, I conceive that ideas
- ' in the understanding are coeval with fensation,
- which is fuch an impression or motion made in some
- part of the body, as produces some perception in the

understanding.

- 'S 14 In this part the understanding is merely passive; and whether or no it will have these be-
- ginnings, and as it were materials of knowledge,
- is not in it's own power. For the objects of our
- fenses do, many of them, obtrude their particular
- ' ideas upon our minds whether we will or no; and
- the operations of our minds will not let us be without, at least some obscure notions of them.



CHAP. II.

Of Simple Ideas.

some are simple, others complex. A simple idea, is one uniform appearance or conception in the mind, which is not distinguishable into different ideas. Such are the ideas of sensible qualities, which though they are in the things themselves so united and blended, that there is no separation, no distance between them; yet the ideas they produce in the mind, enter by the senses simple and unmixed. Thus, though the hand seels softness and warmth in the same piece of wax; yet the simple ideas thus united in the same subject, are as perfectly distinct as those that come in by different senses.

§ 2. These simple ideas are suggested no other way

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§ 3. The mind being once stored with the simple ideas, has the power to repeat, compare, and unite them to an infinite variety: And so can make at pleasure new complex ideas. But the most enlarged understanding cannot frame one new simple idea; now by any force destroy them that are there.

CHAP. III.

Of Ideas of one Sense.

§ 1.

DEAS, with reference to the different ways wherein they approach the mind, are of four forts.

First, There are some which come into our minds by one sense only.

Secondly, There are others conveyed into the mind by more senses than one.

Thirdly, Others that are had from reflection only.

Fourthly, There are some suggested to the mind by all the ways of sensation and reflection.

§ 2. First, Some enter into the mind only by one sense peculiarly adapted to receive them. Thus colours, sounds, smells, &c come in only by the eyes, ears, and nose. And if these organs are any of them so disordered as not to perform their functions, they have no postern to be admitted by; no other way to bring themselves in view, and be perceived by the understanding. It will be needless to enumerate all the particular simple ideas belonging to each sense; nor indeed is it possible; there being a great many more than we have names for.

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CHAP. IV.

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T SHALL here mention one which we receive by our touch, because it is one of the chief ingredients in many of our complex ideas; and that is the idea of folidity: It arises from the resistance, one body makes to the entrance of another body into the place it possesses, till it has left it. There is no idea which we more constantly receive from fensation than this. In whatever posture we are, we feel somewhat that supports us, and hinders us from finking downwards: And the bodies we daily handle, make us perceive, that while they remain between them, they do, by an unfurmountable force, hinder the approach of the parts of our hands that press them. This idea is commonly called impenetrability. I conceive folidity is more proper to express it, because this carries something more of positive in it than impenetrability, which is negative, and is perhaps more a consequence of solidity, than folidity itself. This seems to be the most effential property of body, and that whereby we conceive it to fill space: The idea of which is, that where we imagine any space taken up by a solid substance, we conceive it so to possess it, that it ex-This resistance is cludes all other folid substances. fo great, that no force can furmount it All the bodies in the world pressing a drop of water on all fides, will never be able to overcome the relistance

it makes to their approaching one another, till it be removed out of their way.

§ 2. The idea of folidity is distinguished from that of pure space, in as much as this latter is neither capable of resistance, nor motion: 'Tis distinguished from hardness, in as much as hardness is a sirm cohesion of the solid parts of matter making up masses of a sensible bulk, so that the whole doth not easily change its sigure. Indeed hard and soft, as commonly apprehended by us, are but relative to the constitutions of our bodies: That being called hard which will put us to pain sooner than change its sigure, by the pressure of any part of our bodies; and that soft, which changes the situation of its parts upon an easy and unpainful touch.

§ 3. This difficulty of changing situation amongst the parts, gives no more folidity to the hardest body, than to the foftest; nor is an adamant one jot more folid than water: He that shall fill a yielding soft body well with air or water, will quickly find its resistance. By this way we may distinguish the idea of the extension of body, from the idea of the extension of space: That of body, is the cohesion or continuity of folid, separable, and moveable parts; that of space, the continuity of unfolid, inseparable, and immoveable parts. Upon the solidity of bodies depends their mutual impulse, resistance, and protrusi-Of pure space and solidity there are several (among which I confess myself one) who persuade themselves they have clear and distinct ideas: And that they can think on space without any thing in it that refifts, or is protruded by body, as well as on fomething that fills space, that can be protruded by the impulse

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stance it impulse of other bodies, or result their motion; the idea of the distance between the opposite parts of a concave surface, being equally clear without, as with the idea of any solid parts between. If any one ask what this solidity is, I send him to his senses to inform him: Let him put a flint or foot ball between his hands, and then endeavour to join them, and he will know.

CHAP. V.

Of Simple Ideas of divers Senses.

Some ideas we get into the mind by more than one fense, as space, extension, figure, rest and motion. These are perceivable by the eyes and touch.

CHAP. VI.

Of Simple Ideas of Reflection.

SOME are had from reflection, only: Such are the ideas we have of the operations of our minds: Of which the two principal are perception or thinking; and volition or willing. The powers of producing these operations are called faculties, which are the understanding and will, the several modes of thinking, &c. belong to this head.

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CHAP. VII.

Of simple Ideas of Sensation and Reflection.

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There are some simple ideas conveyed into the mind by all the ways of fensation and reflection; such are pleasure, pain, power, existence, unity, succession. Pleasure or delight, pain or uneasiness accompany almost every impression on our senses, and every action or thought of the mind. By pleasure or pain we mean whatever delights or mosetts us, whether it arises from the thoughts of our minds; or any thing operating on our bodies. Satisfaction, delight, pleasure, happiness, and uneasiness, trouble, torment, misery, &c. are but different degrees, the one of pleasure, the other of pain.

power over several parts of our bodies to move or keep them at rest as we think sit; and also by their motion to move ourselves and other configuous bodies; having also given a power to our minds in several instances, to chuse amongst its ideas which it will think on: To excite us to these actions of thinking and motion he has joined to teveral thoughts and sensations a perception of delight: Without this we should have no reason to prefer one thought or action to another, or motion to rest. In which state, many however furnished with the faculties of understanding and will, would be a very idle unactive creature, and pass his time only in a lazy sethargic dream.

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§ 3. Pain has the same efficacy to set us on work that pleasure has; fince we are as ready to avoid that as to purfue this. This is worth our confideration. that pain is often produced by the same objects and ideas that produce pleasure in us. This their near conjunction gives us new occasion of admiring the wifdom and goodness of our Maker, who designing the preservation of our being, has annexed pain to the application of many things to our bodies; to warn us of the harm they will do us, and as advices to withdraw us from them. But he not designing our preservation barely, but the preservation of every part and organ in its perfection, hath in many cases annexed pain to those very ideas which delight us, Thus heat that is very agreeable to us in one degree, by a little greater increase of it, proves no ordinary torment: Which is wisely ordered by nature, that when any object does by the vehemence of its operation diforder the inftruments of sensation, whose structures cannot but be very delicate, we might by the pain be warned to withdraw before the organ be quite put out of order. That this is the end of pain, appears from this consideration; that though great light is infufferable to the eyes; yet the highest degree of darkness does not at all disease them: Because that causes no disorderly motion in that curious organ the eye. But excess of cold as well as heat pains us; because it is equally destructive to the temper which is necessary to the preservation of life.

§ 4 Another reason why God hath annexed sever ral degrees of pleasure and pain to all the things that environ and affect us, and blended them together in all things that our thoughts and senses have to de with, is, that we finding impersection and distalistaction, and want of compleat happiness in all the enjoyments of the creatures, might be led to seek it in the enjoyment of him with whom is fulness of joy, and at whose right band are pleasures for evermore. Though what is here said concerning pleasure and pain may not perhaps make those ideas clearer to us, than our own experience does, yet it may serve to give us due sentiments of the wisdom and goodness of the sovereign disposer of all things, which is not unsuitable to the main end of these enquiries: The knowledge and veneration of him being the chief end of all our thoughts, and the proper business of all understandings.

- § 5. Existence and unity are two other ideas suggested by every object without, and every idea within: When ideas are in our minds, we consider them as being actually there, as well as we consider things to be actually without us; which is, that they exist, or have existence: And whatever we consider as one thing, whether a real being or idea, suggests the idea of unity.
- 6. Power is another idea derived from these sources: For finding in ourselves that we can think and move several parts of our bodies at pleasure; and observing the effects that natural bodies produce in one another: By both these ways we get the idea of power.
- § 7. Succession is another idea suggested by our senses, and by reflection on what passes in our minds. For if we look into ourselves, we shall find our ideas always whilst we are awake, or have any thought, passing

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CHAP. VIII.

Some farther considerations concerning simple ideas.

§ 1.

Whatsoever is able by affecting our senses to cause any perception in the mind, doth thereby produce in the understanding a simple idea; which, whatsoever be the cause of it, is looked upon as a real positive idea in the understanding. Thus the ideas of heat and cold, light and darkness, motion and rest, &c. are equally positive in the mind, though some of their causes may be mere privations. An inquiry into their causes concerns not the ideas as in the understanding; but the nature of the things existing without us. Thus a painter has distinct ideas of white and black, as well as the philosopher, who tells us what kind of particles, and how ranged in the surface, occasioned those colours.

§ 2. That a privative cause may produce a positive idea, appears from shadows; which (though nothing but the absence of light) are discernible; and cause clear and positive ideas. The natural reason of which may be this, viz. that since sensation is produced only by different degrees and modes of motion in our animal spirits, variously agitated by external objects; the abatement of any former motion must as necessarily produce a new sensation as the increase and variation of it; and thereby introduce a new idea. We

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have indeed some negative names which stand not directly for positive ideas, but for their absence; such as insipid, silence, which denote positive ideas, viz. taste and sound, with a signification of their absence.

§ 3. It will be useful to distinguish ideas as they are perceptions in our minds, from what they are in the bodies, that cause such perceptions in us: For we are not to think the former exact images and resemblances of something inherent in the subject, most of those of sensation being in the mind, no more the likeness of something existing without us, than the names that stand for them are the likeness of our ideas, which yet upon hearing, they are apt to excite in us.

the immediate object of perception, thought, or understanding, that I call an idea: And the power to produce any idea in our mind, I call the quality of the subject wherein that power is: Thus a snow ball having the power to produce in us the ideas of white, cold, and round, those powers as they are in the snow-ball, I call qualities; and as they are sensations or perceptions in our understandings, I call them ideas: Which ideas if I speak of sometimes, as in the things themselves, I would be understood to mean those qualities in the objects which produce them in us.

f. These qualities are of two sorts, sirst, original, or primary, such are solidity, extension, motion or rest, number and sigure. These are inseparable from body, and such as it constantly keeps in all its changes and alterations: Thus take a grain of wheat, divide it into two parts, each part has still solidity, extension, sigure, mobility: Divide it again, and it still retains the same qualities, and will do still, though

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you divide it on till the parts become infensible. Secondly, fecondary qualities, such as colours, smells tastes, sounds, &cc which, whatever reality we by mistake may attribute to them, are in truth nothing in the objects themselves, but powers to produce various fensations in us; and depend on the qualities beforementioned.

§ 6. 'The next thing to be considered is, how bodies produce ideas in us, and that is manifestly by impulse, the only way which we can conceive bodies operate in. If then external objects be not united to our minds, when they produce ideas in it; and yet we perceive these original qualities in such of them

as fingly full under our fenses, it is evident, that

fome motion must be thence continued by our nerves, or animal spirits, by some parts of our bodies, to the

brain, or the feat of fensation, there to produce in

our minds the particular ideas we have of them.'

§ 7. After the same manner that the ideas of these
original qualities are produced in us, we may conceive, that the ideas of secondary qualities are also

produced, viz by the operation of insensible particles on our senses. For it being manifest that there is good

for of bodies, each whereof is fo small, that we

cannot, by any of our fenses, discover either their

balk, figure, or motion; we may suppose, that the

different motions and figures, bulk and number of fuch particles, affecting the feveral organs of our

fenses, produce in us those different sensations, which

we have from these bodies It being no more impossible to conceive, that God should annex such is

deas to fuch motions, with which they have no simi-

litude, than that he should annex the idea of pain

to the motion of a piece of steel dividing our flesh, with which that idea hath no resemblance.

- § 8. The ideas of primary qualities of bodies are resemblances of them; and their patterns really exist in bodies themselves: But the ideas produced in us by secondary qualities, have no resemblance of them at all: And what is sweet, blue, or warm in the idea, is but the certain bulk, sigure, and motion of the insensible parts in the bodies themselves, which we call so.
- 19. Thus we see that fire at one distance produces in us the fentation of warmth, which at a nearer approach causes the sensation of pain. Now what reason have we to say that the idea of warmth is actually in the fire, but that of pain not in the fire, which the fame fire produces in us the fame, way? The bulk, number, figure and motion of the parts of fire, are really in it, whether we perceive them or no; and therefore may be called real qualines, because they really exist in that body. But light and heat are no more really in it, than sickness or pain: Take away the sensation of them; let not the eyes fee light or colours, nor the ear hear founds; let the palate not taste, nor the nose smell, and all colours, tastes, odours, and sounds, as they are such particular ideas vanish and cease, and are reduced to their causes (that is) bulk, motion, figure, &c. of parts.

first immediately perceivable, which by immediately operating on our bodies, produce several different ideas in us. Secondly, mediately perceivable, which by operating on other bodies, change their primary qualities, so as

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to render them capable of producing ideas in us different from what they did before. These last are powers in bodies which proceed from the particular constitution of those primary and original qualities, to make fuch a change in the bulk, figure, texture, &c. of another body, as to make it operate on our fenses different from what it did before; as in fire to make lead fluid: These two last being nothing but powers relating to other bodies, and refulting from the different modifications of the original qualities, are yet otherwise thought of; the former being esteemed real qualities; but the latter barely powers: The reason of this mistake seems to be this; that our ideas of fenfible qualities containing nothing in them of bulk, figure, &c. we cannot think them the effect of those primary qualities which appear not to our fenses to operate in their productions, and with which they have not any apparent congruity, or conceivable connexion: Nor can reason show how bodies by their bulk, figure, &c. should produce in the mine the ideas of warm, yellow, &c.; bur, in the other case, when bodies operate upon one another, we plainly fee that the quality produced hath commonly no refemblance with any thing in the thing producing it, and therefore we look upon it as the effect of power: But our fenses not being able to discover any unlikeness between the idea produced in us, and the quality of the object producing it, we imagine that our ideas are resemblances of something in the objects, and not the effects of certain powers placed in the modification of the primary qualities, with which primary qualities the ideas produced in us have no refemblance.

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was necessary in our present enquiry, to distingush the primary and real qualities of bodies which are always in them, from those secondary and imputed qualities, which are but the powers of several combinations of those primary ones, when they operate without being distinctly discerned; whereby we learn to know what ideas are, and what are not resemblances of something really existing in the bodies we denominate from them.

CHAP. IX.

Of Perception.

§ 1.

PERCEPTION is the first we receive from restection: It is by some called thinking in general: Though thinking, in the propriety of the English tongue, signifies that fort of operation of the mind about its ideas, wherein the mind is active; where it considers any thing with some degree of voluntary attention: For in bare perception the mind is for the most part only passive; and what it perceives it cannot avoid perceiving. What this is, we cannot otherwise know, than by restecting on what passes in our minds when we see, feel, hear, &c.

§ 2. Impressions made on the outward parts, if they are not taken notice of within, cause no perception: As we see in those whose minds are intently bussed in the contemplation of certain objects. A sufficient impulse there may be upon the organs of

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fensation: But if it reach not the observation of the mind, there sollows no perception: So that where ever there is sense or perception, there some idea is actually produced and present in the understanding.

ally produced and present in the understanding. § 3. We may observe that the ideas we receive from fensation, are often in grown people altered by the judgment, without our taking notice of it. Thus a globe of any uniform colour (as of gold or jet, being let before our eyes, the idea thereby imprinted is of a flat circle variously shadowed. But being accustomed to perceive what kind of appearances convex bodies are wont to make in us; the judgment alters the appearances into their causes; and from that variety of shadow or colour, frames to itfelf the perception of a convex figure of one uniform colour. 'To which purpose I shall here in fert a problem of the learned and worthy Mr. Molineux, and it is this:" "Suppose a man born blind, and now adult, and taught by his touch to distinguish between a cube and a sphere of the fame metal, and nighly of the same bigness, so as " to tell, when he felt the one and the other, which

is the cube, which the sphere. Suppose then the cube and sphere placed on a table, and the blind

man to be made to fee : Quere, whether by his

fight, before he touched them, he could now distinguish and tell, which is the globe, which

"the cube." To which the acute and judicious pro-

tained the experience of, how a globe, how a cub

affects his touch; yet he has not yet attained the

experience, that what affects his touch so or so must affect his sight so or so: Or that a proruberan

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"angle in the cube, that pressed his hand unequally,
I shall appear to his eye, as it does in the cube."
I intirely agree with this thinking gentleman in his answer to this his problem.

formed so readily, that we take that for the perception of our sensation, which is but an idea formed by the judgment: So that one serves only to excite the other, and is scarce taken notice of itself. As a man who reads or hears with attention, takes little notice of the characters or sounds, but of the ideas that are excited in him by them. Thus habits come at last to produce actions in us, which often escape our observation.

§ 5. The faculty of perception feems to be that which puts the distinction between the animal kingdom and the inferior parts of nature: Since vegetables many of them have some degrees of motion, and upon the different application of other bodies to them, do very briskly alter their figures and motions, and thence have obtained the name of fensitive plants: which yet is, I suppose, but bare mechanism, and no otherways produced, than the shortning of a rope by the affusion of water. But perception, I believe, is in some degree in all sorts of animals: Though I think we may from the make of an Oyster or Cockle, reasonably conclude that it has not so many nor so quick senses as a man, or several other animals.

§ 6. Perception is also the first step and degree towards knowledge, and the inlet of all the materials of it: So that the sewer senses any man has, and the duller the impressions that are made by them are, the more 32 AN ABRIDGMENT of Book II.

more remote he is from that knowledge which is to
be found in other men.

CHAP. X.

Of Retention.

\$ 1.

THE next faculty of the mind whereby it makes a farther progress towards knowledge, I call Retention; which is the keeping of those ideas it has received: Which is done two ways.

§ 2. First, By keeping the idea which is brought into the mind for some time actually in view, which is

called Contemplation.

§ 3. Secondly, By reviving those ideas in our minds which have disappeared, and have been, as it were, laid out of fight: And this is memory, which is as it were the storehouse of our ideas; for the narrow mind of man not being capable of having many ideas under view at once, it was necessary to have a repository to lay up those ideas which at another time it may have use for. But our ideas being nothing but actual perceptions in the mind, which ceale to be any thing when there is no perception of them, this laying up of our ideas in the repository of the memory fignifies no more but this, that the mind has a power in many cases to revive perceptions it has once had, with this additional terception annexed to them, that it has had them before. And it is by the affistance of this faculty, that we are faid to have all those ideas in our understandings, which we

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can bring in fight, and make the objects of our thoughts, without the help of those sensible qualities which first imprinted them there,

- § 4. Attention and repetition help much to the fixing ideas in our memories: But those which make the deepest and most lasting impressions, are those which are accompanied with pleasure or pain. Ideas but once taken in, and never again repeated, are soon lost; as those of colours in such as lost their sight when very young.
- § 5. The memory in some men is tenacious, even to a miracle: But yet there feems to be a constant decay of all our ideas, even of those which are struck deepest; and in minds the most retentive: So that if they be not fometimes renewed, the print wears out, and at last there remains nothing to be seen. Those ideas that are often refreshed by a frequent return of the objects or actions that produce them, fix themselves best in the memory, and remain longest there: Such are the original qualities of bodies, viz. Solidity, Extension, Figure, Motion, &c. and those that almost constantly affect us, as heat and cold : And those that are the affections of all kinds of beings, as Existence, Duration, Number: These and the like are feldom quite lost while the mind retains any ideas at all.
- § 6. In memory the mind is oftentimes more than harely passive; for it often tets itself on work to search some hidden ideas: Sometimes they start of their own accord; and sometimes turbulent and tempestuous passions tumble them out of their cells.
 - § 7. The defects of the memory are two.

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First, That it loses the idea quite, and so far it produces perfect ignorance.

Secondly, That it moves flowly, and retrieves not the ideas laid up in store quick enough to serve the mind upon occasions. This, if it be to a great degree, is stupidity. In the having ideas ready at hand on all occasions, consists what we call Invention, Fancy and quickness of parts.

§ 8. This faculty other animals feem to have to a great degree, as well as Man, as appears by birds learning of tunes, and their endeavour to hit the notes right. For it feems impossible that they should endeavour to conform their voices (as 'tis plain they do) to notes whereof they have no ideas.

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CHAP. XI.

Of Discerning, and other operations of the mind.

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A NOTHER faculty of the mind is, that of discerning between its ideas: On this depends the evidence, and certainty of several even general propositions, which pass for innate truths: Whereas indeed they depend on this clear discerning faculty of the mind, whereby it perceives two ideas to be the same or different. In being able nicely to distinguish one thing from another, where there is the least difference, consists in a great measure that exactness of judgment and clearness of reason, which is to be observed in one man above another; which is quite opposite to wit, which consists most in the assemblage of ideas, and

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and putting those together with quickness and variety, which have the least resemblance, to form agreeable visions: Whereas judgment separates carefully those ideas, wherein can be found the least difference to prevent error and delusion.

- § 2. To the well distinguishing our ideas, it chiefly contributes that they be clear and determinate; and when they are so, it will not breed any confusion or mistake about them, though the senses should convey them from the same object differently on different occasions.
- § 3. The comparing of our ideas one with another in respect of Extent, Degree, Time, Place, or any other circumstances, is another operation of the mind about its ideas, which is the ground of Relations. Brutes seem not to have this faculty in any great degree. They have probably several ideas distinct emough; but cannot compare them farther than some sensible circumstances annexed to the objects themselves. The power of comparing general ideas which we may observe in Men, we may probably conjecture Beasts have none at all.
- § 4. Composition is another operation of the mind, whereby it combines several of its simple ideas into complex ones: Under which operation we may reckon that of Enlarging, wherein we put several ideas together of the same kind, as several units to make a dozen. In this also I suppose brutes come far short of Man, for though they take in and retain together several combinations of simple ideas, as possibly a dog does the Shape, smell, and voice of his Master; yet these are rather so many distinct marks, whereby he

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knows him, that one complex idea made out of those feveral simple ones.

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§ 5. When children have, by repeated fensations, got ideas fixed in their memories, they begin,

by degrees, to learn the use of signs: And when

they have got the skill to apply the organs of speech to the framing of articulate founds, they

begin to make use of words to signify their ideas to

others.

6 6. Alftraction is another operation of the mind whereby the mind forms general ideas from such a it received from particular objects, which it does by confidering them as they are in the mind fuch appear ances, separate from the circumstances of real exist ence, as Time, Place, &c. These become general representatives of all of the same kind, and their name applicable to whatever exists conformable to such ab stract ideas. Thus the colour which I receive from Chalk, Snow, and Milk, is made a representative of all of that kind; and has a name given it (Whitenels) which fignifies the fune quality, wherever to be found or imagined. 'Again, the general idea of a triangle " must be neither oblique, nor rectangle, neither equis lateral, equicrural, nor scalenon; but all and none of these at once. In effect, it is something imperfect that cannot exist; an idea wherein some parts of ' several different and inconsistent ideas are put to gether.' * And thus Universals, both ideas and terms, are made.

§ 7. This puts the great difference between Ma and Brutes: They seem to reason about particular objects, and ideas, but there appear no footsteps of

^{*} Book iv. ch. vii. § 9.

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Abstraction in them, or of making general ideas. And therefore, I think, we may suppose that it is in this, that the species of Brutes are discriminated from Man; and it is that proper discremence wherein they are wholly separated, and which at last widens to so vast a distance. For if they have any ideas at all, and are not bare machines (as some would have them) we cannot deny them to have some reason. It seems as evident to me, that they do some of them in certain instances reason, as that they have sense; but it is only in particular ideas, just as they received them from their senses.

68. 'How far idiots are concerned in the want or weakness of any, or all of the foregoing faculties, an exact observation of their several ways of faltering would no doubt discover. The defect in idiots feems to proceed from want of quickness. activity, and motion in the intellectual faculties, whereby they are deprived of reason: Whereas madmen, on the other fide, feem to fuffer by the other extreme. For they do not appear to me to have lost the faculty of reasoning; but having joined together some ideas very wrongly, they miftake them for truths; and they err as men do that argue right from wrong principles. In short, herein feems to lie the difference between idiots and madmen, that madmen put wrong ideas together, and so make wrong propositions, but argue and reason right from them: But idiots make very few or no propositions, and reason scarce at all.'

CHAP. XII.

Of Complex Ideas.

§ 1.

IN the reception of simple ideas the mind is only tassive, having no power to frame any one to itself, nor have any idea which does not wholly confist of them. But about these simple ideas it exerts feveral acts of its own, whereby out of them, as the materials and foundations of the rest, the other are framed: The acts of the mind, wherein it exerts its power over its simple ideas, are chiefly these three: First, it combines several simple ideas into one compound one, and thus all comilex ideas are made. Secondly, it brings two ideas whether simple or complex together, and fets them by one another, fo as to take a view of them at once without uniting them into one; by which way it gets all its ideas of relations. Thirdly, it separates them from all other ideas that accompany them in their real existence. And thus all its general ideas are made. I shall here begin with the first of these, and come to the other two in their due places. As simple ideas are observed to exist in several combinations united together, to the mind may confider them as united, not only as they are really united in external objects, but as itself has joined them. Ideas thus made up of several ones put together, I call complex, as Man, Army, Beauty, Cratitude, &c. By this faculty of repeating and joining together its ideas, the mind has great

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great power in varying and multiplying the objects of its thoughts. But it is still confined to those simple ideas which it received from the two sources of sensation and reflection. It can have no other ideas of sensible qualities, than what come from without by the senses, nor any other ideas of the operations of a thinking substance, than what it sinds in itself: But having once got these simple ideas, it can by its own power put them together, and make new complex ones, which it never received so united.

- § 2. Complex ideas however compounded, and de-compounded, though their number be infinite, and their variety endless, may all be reduced under these three heads, suff Modes, secondly Substances, thirdly Relations.
- § 3. Modes, I call such complex ideas which contain not the supposition of subsisting by themselves, but are considered as dependences on, and affections of substances, as Triangle, Gratitude, Murder, &c. These modes are of two sorts, sink Simple, which are combinations of the same simple idea, as a Dozen, Score, &c. which are but the ideas of so many distinct units put together. Secondly, Mixed, which are compounded of simple ideas of several kinds, as Beauty, which consists in a certain composition of colour and sigure, causing delight in the beholder. These, which is the concealed change of the possession of any thing without the consent of the proprietor. These visibly contain a combination of ideas, of several kinds.
- § 4. Secondly, Substances, the ideas of substances are only such combinations of simple ideas as are taken to represent distinct particular things subsisting by

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themselves; in which the consused idea of substance is always the chief. Thus a combination of the ideas of a certain figure, with the powers of Motion, Thought, and Reasoning joined to substance, make the ordinary idea of Man.

§ 5. These again are either of single substances, as Man. Stone; or of collective, or several put together, as Army, Heap: Ideas of several substances thus put together, are as much each of them one single idea, as that of a Man, or an Unit.

§ 6 Thirdly, Relations which confist in the confideration and comparing one idea with another. Of these several kinds we shall treat in their order.

CHAP. XIII.

Of Simple Modes, and first of the Simple Modes of Space.

§ I

CONCERNING Simple Modes we may observe that the modifications of any simple Idea, are as perfectly different and distinct ideas in the mind, as those of the greatest distance or contrariety; thus Two is as distinct from Three, as Blueness from Heat. Under this head I shall first consider the modes of Space.

§ 2. Space is a simple idea which we get both by our sight and touch. When we consider it barely in length between two bodies, 'tis called Distance; when in length, breadth and thickness, it may be called Capacity When considered between the extremities of matter, which fills the capacity of space with something solid, tangible and moveable, it is called Extension;

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fion; and thus Extension will be an idea belonging to body: But Space may be conceived without it.

§ 3. Each different distance is a different modification of space; and each idea of any different space is a Simple Mode of this idea. Such are an Inch, Fost, Yard, &c. which are the ideas of certain stated lengths which men fettle in their minds for the use, and by the custom of measuring. When these ideas are made familiar to mens thoughts, they can in their minds repeat them as often as they will. without joining to them the idea of body, and frame to themselves the ideas of Feet, Yards, or Fathoms beyond the utmost bounds of all bodies, and by adding these still one to another, enlarge their idea of space as much as they please. From this power of repeating any idea of Distance, without being ever able to come to an end, we come by the ilea of immensity.

the Relation of the parts of the termination of Extension or circumscribed space amongst themselves:
And this is what we call Figure. This the Touch discovers in sensible bodies, whose extremities come within our reach: And the Eye takes both from bodies and colours, whose boundaries are within its view; where observing how the extremities terminate either in straight lines, which meet at discernible angles; or in crooked lines, wherein no angles can be perceived; by considering these as they relate to one another in all parts of the extremities of any body or space, it has that idea we call Figure; which affords to the mind infinite variety.

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§ 5. Another Mode belonging to this head, is that of Place. Our idea of Place is nothing but the relative position of any thing with reference to its distance from some fixed and certain points. Whence we say, that a thing has or has not changed Place, when its distance either is or is not altered with respect to those bodies with which we have occasion to compare it. That this is so, we may easily gather from hence; that we can have no idea of the place of the Universe, though we can of all its parts. To say that the world is somewhere, means no more, than that it does exist. The word Place is sometimes to ken to signify that Space which any body takes up; and so the Universe may be conceived in a Place.

§ 6. 'Body and extension are two distinct ideas.' For, first, extension includes no folidity nor resistance to the motion of body, as body does. Secondly, the parts of pure space are inteparable one from the other;

- fo that the continuity cannot be separated, neither really, nor mentally. Thirdly, the parts of pure
- ' space are immoveable, which follows from their infe parability; motion being nothing but change of di-
- france between any two things: But this cannot be
- between parts that are inteparable; which there fore must need be at perpetual rest one amongst
- " another."

§ 7. 'If it be demanded, (as usually it is), who

- ther this space, void of body, be substance or accident? I shall readily answer, I know not: Not
- fhall be ashamed to own my ignorance, till the
- that ask shew me a clear distinct idea of substance.'
- § 8. They who first ran into the notion of at cidents, as a fort of real beings, that needed some

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thing to inhere in, were forced to find out the word substance, to support them. Had the poor Indian philosopher, (who imagined that the earth also wanted something to bear it up) but thought of this word substance, he needed not to have been at the trouble to find an elephant to support it, and a tortoise to support his elephant. The word substance would have done it effectually.

§ 9. 'But the question being here, Whether the idea of space or extension be the same with the idea of body, it is not necessary to prove the real existence of a vacuum, but the idea of it; which it is plain men have, when they enquire and dispute whether there be a vacuum or no? For if they had not the idea of space without body, they could not make a question about its existence. Whatever men shall think concerning the existence of a vacuum, this is plain to me, that we have as clear an idea of space ' distinct from solidity, as we have of solidity distinct from motion, or motion from space. not any two more distinct ideas, and we can as eafily conceive space without solidity, as we can conceive body or space without motion, though it be never fo certain, that neither body not motion can exist without space.'

CHAP. XIV.

Of Duration and its Simple Modes.

§ 1.

HERE is another fort of Distance, the idea of which we get from the sleeting, and perpetually perishing parts of succession, which we call Duration. The Simple Modes of it are any different lengths of it, whereof we have distinct ideas, as Hours, Days, Years, &c. Time and Eternity.

§ 2. The idea of Succession is got by reflecting on that train of ideas which conflantly follow one another in our minds as long as we are awake. The distance between any parts of this Succession is what we call Duration: And the continuation of the existence of our felves, or any thing elfe commensurate to the succession of any ideas in our minds, is what we call our own Duration, or that of another thing co-existing with our thinking. That this is fo, appears from hence, that we have no perception of fuccession or duration, when that succession of our ideas ceases, as in Sleep: The moment that we fleep, and awake, how distant for ever, feems to be joined and connected. And polfibly it would be fo to a waking man, could he fix upon one idea without variation, and the succession of And we fee that they whose thoughts are very intent upon one thing, let slip out of their account a good part of that Duration, and think that time shorter than it is. But it a man during his fleep dream, and variety of ideas make themselves percep

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perceptible in his mind one after another, he hath then, during such dreaming, a sense of duration and of the length of it.

§ 3. A man having once got this idea of duration can apply it to things which exist while he does not think: And thus we measure the time of our

fleep, as well as that wherein we are awake.

§ 4. Those who think we get the idea of fuccesfion from our observation of motion, by our senses, will be of our opinion, when they consider that motion produces in the mind an idea of succession, no otherways than as it produces there a continued train of distinguishable ideas. A man that looks upon a body really moving perceives no motion, unless that motion produces a constant train of successive ideas. But wherever a man is, though all things be at rest about him, if he thinks, he will be conscious of Succession without perceiving any motion. Hence motions very flow are not perceived by us; because the change of distance is so slow, that it causes no new ideas in us, but after a long interval. The fame happens in things that move very swift, which not affecting the sense with several distinguishable distances of their motion, cause not any train of ideas in our minds, and consequently are not perceived. Thus any thing that moves round in a circle in less time than our ideas are wont to succeed one another in our minds, is not perceived to move, but seems to be a perfect intire circle of that matter which is in motion. Such a part of duration as takes up the time of only one idea in our minds, wherein we perceive no fuccession, we call an Instant. 'Hence I leave it to others to judge, whether it be not probable, that our ideas do succeed

- another in our minds at certain distances, some.
- times faster, and sometimes slower; but there seems
- to be certain bounds to the quickness and slowness
- of the succession of those ideas one to another in our
- minds, beyond which they can neither delay nor
- baften.
- § 5. Duration, as marked by certain periods and measures, is what we most properly call Time: which we measure by the diurnal and annual Revolutions of the Sun, as being constant, regular, and universally observable by all mankind, and supposed equal to one another.
- 6 6. It is not necessary that time should be meafured by motion: Any constant periodical appearance in feemingly equidiftant spaces, may as well distinguish the intervals of Time as what we make use of For supposing the sun to be lighted, and then extinguished every day: And that in the space of an annual revolution, it should fensibly encrease in bright ness, and so decrease again; such a regular appearance would ferve to measure out the distances of duration, to all that could observe it, as well without, as with The freezing of water, the blowing of 1 plant returning at equidiftant periods in all the parts of the earth would ferve for the same purpose. In effect, we find that a people of America counted their years by the coming and going away of birds at cet tain feafons.
 - § 7. 'We must carefully distinguish betwixt du-
- fration itself, and the measures we make use of to judge of its length. Duration in itself, is to be
- ' considered as going on in one constant, equal, uniform
- " course: But none of the measures of it, which we make

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make use of, can be known to do so; nor can we be affured, that their assigned parts or periods are equal in duration one to another; for two successive lengths of durations, however measured, can never be demonstrated to be equal. All that we can do for a measure of time, is to take such as have continual successive appearances at seemingly equidistant periods; of which seeming equality we have no other measure, but such as the train of our own ideas have lodged in our memories, with the concurrence of other probable reasons, to persuade us of their equality.'

§ 8. The mind having once got such a measure of Time, as the annual revolution of the sun, can easily apply it to Duration wherein that measure itself did not exist: And the idea of Duration equal to an Annual Revolution of the Sun, is as easily applicable in our thoughts to Duration where no Sun, nor motion was, as the idea of a Foot or Yard to distances beyond the confines of the world.

§ 9. By the same means, and from the same original that we come to have the idea of Time, we have also that idea which we call Eternity: For having got the ideas of certain lengths of Duration, we an in our thoughts add them to one another as oft as we lease, without ever coming to an end.

§ 10. And thus it is plain, that from the two ountains of all knowledge before-mentioned, viz. Sensation and Reflection, we get the ideas of Duration, and the several measures of it. For,

If, By observing what passes in our minds, how ur ideas there in train constantly, some vanish, and others

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adly. By observing a distance in the parts of this Succession, we get the idea of Duration.

adly, By observing certain appearances at regular and feemingly equidiffant periods, we get the ideas of certain lengths or measures of Duration, as Minutes. Hours, Days, &c.

4thly, By being able to repeat those measures of Time, as often as we will, we can come to imagine Duration, where nothing does really endure or exist! Thus we imagine to-morrow, next year, or level years hence.

sthly, By being able to repeat any such idea of a ny length of Time, as of a Minute, Year, &c. a often as we will, and add them one to another with out ever coming to an end, we come by the idea of Eternity.

Othly, By confidering any part of infinite Duration, as fet out by periodical measures, we come by the idea of what we call Time in general.

CHAP. XV.

Of Duration and Expansion considered together.

HE Mind, having got the idea of the length of any part of expansion, can, as has been

' faid, repeat that idea, and fo adding it to the for

" mer, enlarge its idea of length, and fo as often a

it will, till it equals the distance of any parts of the the

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the earth one from another, and increase thus, till it amounts to the distance of the sun, or remotest It is true, we can easily in our thoughts come to the extremity and bounds of all body: But when the mind is there, it finds nothing to hinder its progress into this endless expansion; of that it can neither find nor conceive any end. Nor let any one fay, that beyond the bounds of body there is nothing at all, unless he will confine God within the limits of matter.'

§ 2. ' Just so is it in duration, the mind, having got the idea of any length of duration, can double, multiply, and enlarge it, beyond all the measures of time; taken from the great bodies of the world. and their motions. But yet every one easily admits, that though we make duration boundleis, we cannot yet extend it beyond all being ry one easily allows, fills eternity; and it is hard to find a reason, why any one should doubt that he likewise fills immensity? His infinite being is certainly as boundless one way as another; and methinks it ascribes a little too much to matter, to fay, where there is no body, there is nothing.'

§ 3. Time is to Duration as Place is to Space or xpansion. They are so much of those boundless teans of Eternity and Immensity as is set out and stinguished from the rest: And so are made use of denote the position of finite real beings in respect be to another, in those infinite oceans of Duration d Space.

14. Each of these have a twofold acceptation. It, Time in general is taken for to much of infite Duration as is coexistent with the Universe, and E measured

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measured out by the motions of its great bodies Thus it is used in the phrases before all time, when time shall be no more. Place is likewise taken for that portion of infinite space possessed by the material world, though this might be more properly called Extension Within these two are confined the particular Time or Duration, Extension or Place of all corporeal beings.

S. 5. Secondly, Time is sometimes applied to part of that infinite Duration that were not really meafured out by real existence, but such as we upon to casion do suppose equal to certain lengths of mefured time, as in the Julian Period, which makes a excursion of seven hundred fixty four years beyond the Creation. Thus we may speak of Place of Distance in the great Inane. wherein I can concein a space equal to, or capable of receiving a body of any affigned dimensions.

§ 6. Where and when are questions belonging to all finite existences, and are by us always reckond

from some known parts of this sensible world, and

from fome certain epochs marked out to us by the

motions observable in it. Without some such fixed parts or periods, the order of things would be

6 loft, to our finite understandings, in the boundles

' invariable oceans of duration and expansion; which

' comprehend in them all finite beings, and, in their

' full extent, belong only to the Deity.'

§ 7. But there is this manifest difference between

the ideas of duration and expansion, that the ideal

of length, which we have of expansion, are turn

ed every way, and fo make figure, and breadth, and thickness; but duration is but as it were the extension

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length of one streight line, extended in infinitum, not capable of multiplicity, variation, or figure; but is one common measure of all existence what-soever, wherein all things, whilst they exist, equally partake. Whether angels and spirits have any analogy to this, in respect of expansion, is beyond my comprehension. And perhaps, it is near as hard for us to have an idea of any real being, with a perfect negation of all manner of existence, with a perfect negation of all manner of duration. And therefore what spirits have to do with space, or how they communicate in it, we know not.

CHAP. XVI.

Of Numbers.

6 I.

THE complex ideas of Number are formed by adding several Units together. The Simple Modes of it are each several combinations, as, Two hree, &c. These are of all others most distinct, the earest being as clearly different from each other as he most remote: Two being as distinct from One, as wo hundred But it is hard to form distinct ideas fevery the least excess in extension. Hence demonstrations in numbers are more general in their use, and more determinate in their application than those of intension.

AN ABRIDGMENT OF Book !!

§ 2. Simple Modes of Numbers, being in our minds but fo many combinations of Units which have no variety, but more or less: Names for each distinct combination, seem more necessary than in any other fort of ideas. For without a name or mark to diffinguish that precise collection, it will hardly be kept from being a heap of confusion. Hence some Americans have no distinct idea of any number beyond twenty: So that when they are discoursed with of greater numbers, they shew the hairs of their head.

§ 3. 'To show how much distinct names conduce

' to our well reckoning, or having useful ideas of num-

bers, let us fet all these following figures, as the

' marks of one number, viz.

Nonillions, Octillions. Septillions. 162486. 345896. 857324.

Quintillions. Quatrillions. Sextillions.

248106. 423147. 437916.

Billions. Millions. Units. Trillions. 235421. 261734. 368149. 623137.

' The ordinary way of naming this number in Eng.

· lifb, will be the often repeating of millions, of mil-

· lions, of millions, of millions, of mil-

' lions, of millions, of millions, (which is the deno-

' mination of the fecond fix figures), in which way,

' it will be very hard to have any distinguishing no

' tions of this number. But whether, by giving

every fix figures a new and orderly denomination,

these, and perhaps a great many more figures, in

progression, might not easily be counted distinctly, and

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§ 4. So that to reckon right, two things are required: First, That the mind distinguish carefully two ideas which are different one from another, only by the addition or fubtraction of one Unit. Secondly, That it retain in memory the names or marks of the feveral combinations from a Unit to that number; and that in exact order, as they follow one another. In either of which if it fails, the whole business of Numbering will be disturbed; and there will remain only the confused idea of Multitude : But the ideas necessary to distinct Numeration will not be attained to.

CHAP. XVII.

Of Infinity.

THE idea signified by the name Infinity, is best examined, by confidering to what Infinity is by he Mind attributed, and then how it frames it. uite and Infinite then are looked upon as the modes d Quantity, and attributed primarily to things that have parts, and are capable of increase or diminutin, by the Addition or Subtraction of any the least part. Such are the ideas of Space, Duration, and Number.

§. 2. When we apply this idea to the Supreme Being, we do it primarily in respect of his Duration ad Ubiquity; more figuratively when to his Wisdom,

Power.

Pewer, Goodness, and other attributes which are pro. perly inexhaustible and incomprehensible: For when we call them Infinite, we have no other idea of this Infinity, but what carries with it fome reflection on the Number, or the Extent of the acts or objects of God's Power and Wisdom, which can never be supposed so great or so many, that these attributes will not always furmount and exceed, though we multiply them in our thoughts, with the Infinity of ends less Number I do not pretend to say, how these attributes are in God, who is infinitely beyond the reach of our narrow capacities: But this is our war of conceiving them, and these our ideas of their Infinity,

§ 3. The next thing to be considered, is how we come by the idea of Infinity. Every one that has any idea of any stated lengths of Space, as a Foot, Yard &c. finds that he can repeat that idea, and join it w another, to a Third, and to on without ever coming to an end of his Additions: From this power of en larging his idea of Space, he takes the idea of Infinit Space or Immensity. By the same power of repeat ing the idea of any length of Duration we have i our minds, with all the endless addition of Number

we come by the idea of Eternity.

§ 4. If our idea of Infinity be got by repeating with out end our own ideas; why do we not attribute it other ideas, as well as those of Space and Duration : find they may be as easily and as often repeated in ou minds as the other: Yet no body ever thinks of it finite Sweetness or Whiteness, though he can repe the idea of Sweet or white as frequently as those Yard or Day. I answer, that those ideas that has parts, and are capable of increase, by the addition

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any parts, afford us by their repetition an idea of Infinity; because with the endless repetition there is continued an enlargement, of which there is no end: But it is not so in other ideas: For if to the perfectest idea I have of White, I add another of equal whiteness; it enlarges not my idea at all. Those ideas that consist not of parts, cannot be augmented to what preportion men please, or be stretched beyond what they have received by their senses, but Space, Duration, and Number being capable of increase by repetition, leave in the mind an idea of an endless room for more; and so those ideas alone lead the mind towards the thought of infinity.

§ 5. We are carefully to distinguish between the idea of the Infinity of Space, and the idea of a Space Infinite. The first is nothing but a supposed endless progression of the mind over any repeated idea of Space. But to have actually in the mind the idea of a Space Infinite, is to suppose the mind already passed over all those repeated ideas of Space, which an endless repetition can never totally represent to it; which carries in it a plain contradiction.

§ 6. This will be planer, if we consider Infinity in Numbers. The Infinity of numbers, to the end of whose addition every one perceives there is no approach, easily appears to any one that reslects on it: But how clear soever this idea of the Infinity of Number be, there is nothing yet more evident than the absurdity of the actual idea of Infinite Number.

§ 7. 'And fince in any bulk of matter, our thoughts can never arrive at the utmost divisibility, therefore there is an apparent infinity to us also in that, which has the Infinity also of Number, but

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ter a complete and positive idea of Infinity.

out the low are whereof : pace put \$ 2. many fathoms and more; but how much that rticulate more is, he hath no distinct notion at all: And s are al could he always supply new line, and find the which ma plummet fink, without ever stopping, he would be \$ 3. 7 fomething in the posture of the mind reaching at arious: ifferent d

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§ 9. I have been bitherto apt to think, that the great and inextricable difficulties, which perpetually involve all discourses concerning infinity, whether of space, duration, or divisibility, have been the certain marks of a defect in our ideas of Infinity, and the disproportion the nature thereof has to the comprehension of our narrow capacities. For whilst men talk and dispute of infinite Space or duration, as if they had as compleat and positive ideas of them, as they have of a yard, or an hour, it is no wonder, if their minds be overlaid by an object too large and mighty to be surveyed and managed by them.

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C H A P. XVIII.

Of other Simple Modes.

6 1.

THE mind has feveral distinct ideas of Sliding, Rowling, Walking, Creeping &c. which are all out the different modifications of motion Swift and Ilw are two different ideas of Motion, the measures whereof are made out of the distances of Time and pace put together.

§ 2. The like variety we have in Sounds: Every triculate word is a different modification of found: is are also notes of different length put together, which make that complex idea called Tune.

§ 3. The modes of Colours might be also very prious: Some of which we take notice of, as the ifferent degrees, or as they are termed shades of the same

fame colour. But fince we feldom make affemblages of Colours without taking in Figure also, as in Painting, &c. those which are taken notice of do most commonly belong to mixed modes, as Beauty, Rainbow, &c.

§ 4. All compounded Tastes and Smells are also modes made up of the simple ideas of those senses. But they being such as generally we have no names for, cannot be set down in writing, but must be lest to the thoughts and experience of the reader.

CHAP. XIX.

Of the Modes of Thinking.

§ 1.

THEN the mind turns its view inwards upon it felf, Thinking is the first idea that occurs: Wherein it observes a great variety of modifications; and thereof frames to itself distinct ideas. Thus the perception annexed to any impression on the body made by an external object, is called Sensation When an idea recurs without the presence of the object, it is called Remembrance. When fought after by the mind, and brought again in view, it is Recollection. When held there long under attentive con-When ideas float in sideration it is Contemplation the mind without regard or reflection, it is called in French Refvery, our language has scarce a name for When the ideas are taken notice of, and as it were registered in the memory, it is Attention. When the mind fixes its view on any one idea, and considers it withou ing is to gested nor uning.

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ders it on all sides, it is Intention and Study. Sleep without dreaming is rest from all these. And Dreaming is the perception of ideas in the mind, not suggested by any external objects, or known occasions; nor under any choice or conduct of the Understanding. Of these various modes of Thinking, the mind forms as distinct ideas, as it does of White and Red, a Square or a Circle.

the mind can fensibly put on, at several times, several degrees of thinking; and be sometimes even
in a waking man so remiss, as to have thoughts
dim and obscure to that degree, that they are very
little removed from none at all; and at last in the
dark retirement of sound sleep, loses the sight perfectly of all ideas whatsoever: Since, I say, this is
evidently so in matter of sact, and constant experience, I ask, whether it be not probable, that
thinking is the action, not the essence of the soul?
Since the operations of agents will easily admit of
intention and remission; but the essences of things,
are not conceived capable of any such variation.

CHAP. XX.

Of the Modes of Pleasure and Pain.

PLEASURE and Pain are simple ideas which we receive both from Sensation and Reslection. There are thoughts of the Mind, as well as sensations, accompanied with Pleasure or Pain. Their causes are termed

termed Good or Evil. For things are esteemed Good or Evil only in reference to Pleasure or Pain. That we call Good which is apt to cause or increase Pleasure, or diminish Pain in us : To procure or preserve the possession of any Good, or absence of any Evil; And on the contrary, that we call Evil, which is apt to produce or increase any Pain, or diminish any Pleasure in us: Or else to procure as any Evil, or deprive us of any Good: By Pleasure and Pain I would be understood to mean of Body or Mind, as they are commonly diffinguished; though in truth they are only different constitutions of the mind, sometimes occafioned by diforder in the body, fometimes by thoughts of the mind.

. § 2. Pleasure and Pain, and their causes Good and Evil, are the hinges upon which our passions turn: By reflecting on the various modifications or tempers of mind, and the internal fenfations which Pleasure and Pain, Good and Evil produce in us, we may thence form to ourselves the ideas of our Passions. Thus, by reflecting upon the thought we have of the delight, which any thing is apt to produce in us, we have an idea we call Love: And, on the contrary, the thought of the Pain, which any thing present or absent produces in us, is what we call Hatred. Desire is that uneasiness which a man finds in himself upon the absence of any thing, the present enjoyment of which carries the idea of Delight with it. Joy is a Delight of the mind arising from the present or assured approaching possession of a Good. Sorrow is an uneasiness of the mind upon the thought of a Good Hope is a Plealost, or the sense of a present Evil. fure in the mind upon the thought of a probable future

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ture enjoyment of a thing which is apt to delight. Fear is an uneasiness of the mind upon the thought of a future Evil likely to befal us. Anger is a discomposure of mind upon the receipt of injury, with a present purpose of Revenge. Despair is the thought of the unattainableness of any Good. Envy is an uneasiness of mind, caused by the consideration of a Good we desire, obtained by one we think should not have had it before us.

§ 3. It is to be confidered that in reference to the Passions, the removal or lessening of a Pain, is considered, and operates as a Pleasure: And the loss or diminishing of a Pleasure, as a Pain. And farther, that the Passions in most persons operate on the body, and cause various changes in it: But these being not always fensible, do not make a necessary part of the dea of each Passion. Besides these modes of Pleasure and Pain which refult from the various confiderations of Good and Evil, there are many others, I might have instanced in, as the Pain of Hunger and Thirst, and the Pleasure of Eating and Drinking; and of Musick, &c. but I rather chose to instance in the Pasions, as being of much more concernment to us; and show how the ideas we have of them, are derived from Sensation and Reflection.'

CHAP. XXI.

Of Power.

\$ 1.

THE mind being every day informed by the fenses, of the alteration of those simple ideas it observes

in things without: Reflecting also on what passes within itself, and observing a constant change of in ideas, fometimes by the impressions of outward objects upon the senses; and sometimes by the determination of its own choice: And concluding from what it has fo constantly observed to have been, that the like changes will for the future be made in the fame things by the same agents, and by the like ways, consider in one thing the possibility of having any of its simple ideas changed; and in another, the possibility of make ing that change, and fo comes by that idea which we call Power. Thus we fay Fire has a power to mel Gold, and make it fluid; and Gold has a Power to be melted.

\$ 2. Power thus confidered, is twofold, viz a able to make, or able to receive any change: The on may be called Active, the other Passive Power. 0 passive power all sensible things abundantly furnish a with ideas, whose sensible qualities and beings we for to be in a continual flux, and therefore with reason continual we look on them as liable still to the same chang Nor have we of Active Power fewer instances : Since conseque whatever change is observed, the mind must collect power somewhere able to make that change. Bu yet if we will consider it attentively, bodies by on whintary senses do not afford us so clear and distinct an idea of Active Power, as we have from reflection on the opt rations of our minds. For all power relating to Action, and there being but two forts of Action, via erception Thinking and Motion, let us consider whence we have erception the clearest ideas of the powers which produce the Perc

§ 3. Of Thinking, Body affords us no idea at all perceiving

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is only from Reflection that we have that; neither have we from Body any idea of the beginning of moion. A body at rest affords us no idea of any Acive Power to move; and when it is fet in motion telf, that Motion is rather a Passion than an Action nit. The idea of the beginning of Motion we have only by reflection on what passes in ourselves; where: we find by experience that barely by willing it, we an move the parts of our bodies which were before it rest.

§ 4. We find in ourselves a Power to begin or forbear, continue or end several actions of our minds, be and motions of our bodies, barely by a thought or preference of the mind. This power which the mind. as thus to order the confideration of any idea, or the orbearing to consider it; or to prefer the motion of ny part of the Body to its Rest, and vice versa in my particular instance, is that we call the Will. The my part of the Body to its Rest, and vice versa in dual exercise of that power, is that which we call Volition or Willing.

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The forbearance or performance of that Action, onsequent to such order or command of the mind, is alled Voluntary: And what soever Action is performd without fuch a thought of the mind, is called Inoduntary.

The Power of Perception is that we call the Unof standing. Perception, which we make the Act of he Understanding, is of three sorts. First, The erception of ideas in our minds. Secondly, The exception of the Signification of Signs. The Perception of the Agreement or Disagreement fany distinct ideas. These powers of the mind, viz. sperceiving and preferring, are usually called by another .:

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other name; and the ordinary way of speaking is that the Understanding and Will are two faculties of the mind. A word proper enough, if it be used so not to breed any confusion in mens thoughts, by being supposed, (as I suspect it has been) to stand for some real Beings in the Soul that performs those actions of Understanding and Volition.

§ 5. From the consideration of the Extent of the power of the mind, over the actions of the man, which every one finds in himself, arise the ideas of Liberty and Necessity: So far as a man has a power to think or not to think; to move or not to move, according to the preference or direction of his own Wherever any performmind, fo far is a man free. ance or forbearance are not equally in a man's power; wherever doing or not doing will not equally follow upon the preference of his mind, there he is not fru, though perhaps the action may be voluntary. So that the idea of Liberty is the idea of a power in any agent, to do or forbear any action according to the determination or thought of the mind, whereby either of them is preferred to the other; where either of them is not in the power of the agent to be produced by him, according to his volition, there he is not at liberty: That agent is under Necessity. that Liberty cannot be where there is no Thought, no Volition, no Will: But there may be Thought, there may be Will, there may be Volition where there is no Liberty. Thus a Tennis-ball, whether in motion by the stroke of a racket, or lying still at rest, is no by any one taken to be a free Agent; because we conceive not a Tennis ball to think, and consequently not to have any Volition or Preference of Motion to Rest, or vice versa. So a man striking himself or

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his triend, by a convulsive motion of his arm, which tis not in his power by Volition or the direction of is nind, to stop or forbear; no body thinks he has. n this Liberty every ones pities him as acting by Necessity and Constraint. Again, suppose a man be arried, whilst fast asleep, into a room where is a peron he longs to fee, and be there locked fast in beond his power to get out; he awakes, and is glad o see himself in so desirable company, which he stays willingly in; that is, prefers his staying to going away. Is not this stay voluntary? I think no body will doubt it, and yet, being locked fast in, he is not tliberty to stay, he has not freedon to be gone. to that Liberty is not an idea belonging to Volition or referring; but to the person having the power of oing or forbearing to do, according as the mind hall chuse or direct.

§ 6. As it is in the motions of the body, fo it is the thoughts of our minds: Where any one is ich that we have power to take it up, or lay it by coording to the Preference of the mind, there we are tliberty. A waking man is not at liberty to think, or ot to think no more than he is at liberty whether his ody shall touch any other or no: But whether he ill remove his contemplation from one idea to another many times in his choice. And then he is, in reect of his ideas, as much at liberty as he is in respect bodies he rests on. He can at pleasure remove infelf from one to another: But yet some ideas to the ind, like some motions to the body, are such, as in stain circumstances it cannot avoid nor obtain their blence by the utmost effort it can use. Thus a man the rack is not at liberty to lay by the idea of an, and entertain other contemplations

§ 7. Wherever Thought is wholly wanting, or the power to act or forbear, according to the direction of Thought, there Necessity takes place. This in an agent capable of Volition, when the beginning or continuation of any action is contrary to the preference of his mind, is called Compulsion; when the himdering or stopping any action is contrary to his Volition, it is called Restraint. Agents that have no Thought, no Volition at all, are in every thing necessary agents.

view of our original ideas, from whence all the reflectived, and of which they are made up. And which may be all reduced to these few primary and original ones, viz. Extension, Solidity, and Mobility which by our senses we receive from body: Thinking and the power of moving, which by restection we receive from our minds. Existence, Duration, Number which belong both to the one and to the other. By these I imagine might be explained the nature of Colours Sounds, Tastes, Smells, and all other ideas whave; if we had but faculties acute enough to per ceive the several modified extensions and motions of these minute bodies which produce those several set sations in us.

C H A P. XXII.

Of Mixed Modes.

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MIXED Modes are combinations of simple ide of different kinds, (whereby they are different kinds, (whereby they are different kinds) guishes simple mind) once is gether wheth I think they he the And to the parafistent there the whereb

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guished from simple modes, which consist only of simple ideas of the same kind, put together by the mind) as Virtue, Vice, a Lie, &c. The mind being once furnithed with simple ideas, can put them together in several compositions, without examining whether they exist so together in nature. And hence I think it is, that these ideas are called Notions, as if they had their original and constant existence more in the thoughts of men than in the reality of things: And to form such ideas it sufficed that the mind put the parts of them together, and that they were consistent in the understanding, without considering whether they had any real being. There are three ways whereby we get these complex ideas of mixed Modes.

§ 2. First, By experience and observation of things themselves: Thus by seeing two men wrestle, we get the idea of wrestling.

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§ 3. Secondly, By invention or voluntary putting together of feveral simple ideas in our own minds; to he that first invented PRINTING had an idea of it first in his mind, before it ever existed.

we never taw, or notions we cannot see; and by enumerating all those ideas which go to the making them up. Thus the mixed Mode which the word Lie stands for, is made up of these simple ideas: First, Articulate sounds. Secondly, Certain ideas in the mind of the speaker. Thirdly, Those words, the signs of these ideas. Fourthly, Those words, the signs of these ideas. Fourthly, Those signs put together by Assimation or Negation, otherwise than the ideas they shand for, are in the mind of the speaker. Since languages are made, complex ideas are usually got by the explication of those terms that stand for them: For since

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fince they confift of fimple ideas combined, they may, by words standing for those simple ideas be represented to the mind of one who understands those words, though that combination of simple ideas was never offered to his mind by the real existence of things,

§ 5. Mixed Modes have their unity from an act of the mind, combining those several simple ideas together, and confidering them as one complex one; The mark of this union is one name given to that com. bination. Men feldom reckon any number of ideas to make one complex one: But fuch collections as there be names for. Thus the killing of an old man, is as fit to be united into one complex idea, as that of a father: Yet, there being no name for it, it is not taken for a particular complex idea; nor a distinct species of action, from that of killing any other man.

§ 6. Those collections of ideas have names generally affixed, which are of frequent use in conversation: In which cases men endeavour to communicate their thoughts to one another with all possible dispatch. Those others which they have seldom occasion to mention, they tie not together, nor give them names.

§ 7. This gives the reason, why there are words in every language, which cannot be rendered by any one fingle word of another. For the fashions and customs of one nation, make feveral combinations of ideas familiar in one, which another had never any occasion Such were, 'Organiopos among the Greeks, Projeriptio among the Romans. This also occasions the constant change of languages; because the change of custom and opinions, brings with it new combinations of ideas, which, to avoid long descriptions, have new names annexed to them, and fo they become new species of mixed modes.

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§ 8. Of all our simple ideas, those that have had most mixed modes made out of them, are Thinking and Motion; (which comprehend in them all Action) and Power, from whence these actions are conceived to flow. For actions being the great business of mankind, it is no wonder if the feveral modes of Thinking and Motion should be taken notice of, the ideas of them observed and laid up in memory, and have names assigned them. For without such complex ideas with names to them, men could not eafily hold any communication about them. Of this kind are the modes of actions distinguished by their causes, Means, Objects, Ends, Instruments, Time, Place, and other circumstances; as also of the powers fitted for those actions.: Thus Boldness is the power to do or speak what we intend without fear or diforder: Which power of doing any thing, when it has been acquired by the frequent doing the fame thing, is that idea we all Habit: when forward and ready upon every occason to break into action, we call it Dissosition. Thus Testiness, is a disposition or aptness to be angry.

Inces wherein these powers are, when they exert this power, are called Causes: And the substances thereupon produced, or the simple ideas introduced into any subject, Effects. The efficacy whereby the new substance or idea is produced, is called in the subject exerting that power, Action; in the subject wherein any simple idea is changed, or produced, Passion: Which efficacy in intellectual agents, we can, I think, conceive to be nothing else but modes of Thinking and Willing: In corporeal agents, nothing the but modifications of motion. Whatever fort of actions

AN ABRIDGMENT OF Book ID 70. action besides these produces any effect, I confess myself to have no notion, or idea of. And therefore many words which feet to express some action signify nothing of the action, but barely the effect, with some circumstances of the subject wrought on, or cause o-Thus Creation, Annihilation, contain in them no idea of the action or manner, whereby they are produced, but barely of the cause, and the thing done. And when a country man fays the cold freeze water, though the word Freezing, feem to import fome action, yet it truly signifies nothing but the effect, viz. That water that was before fluid, is become bard, and confiftent, without containing any idea of the action whereby it is done.

CHAP. XXIII.

Of our Complex Ideas of Substances.

THE mind observing several simple ideas to go constantly together, which being prefumed to belong to one thing, are called fo united in one fubject by one name, which we are apt afterward to talk of and confider as one simple idea, which indeed is complication of many ideas together. We imagine no these simple ideas to subsist by themselves, but suppose fome fubstratum, wherein they subsist, which we cal fubstance. The idea of ture substance is nothing bu the supposed; but unknown support of these qualities which are capable of producing simple ideas in us.

§ 2. The ideas of particular substances are compole

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posed out of this obscure and general idea of Sub-stance, together with such combinations of simple ideas, as are observed to exist together, and supposed to slow from the internal constitution, and unknown essence of that substance. Thus we come by the ideas of Man, Horse, Gold, &c. Thus the sensible qualities of Iron, or a Diamond, make the complex ideas of those substances, which a Smith or a Jeweller commonly knows better than a philosopher.

of the mind, viz. Thinking, Reasoning, &c. which we concluding not to subsist by themselves, nor apprehending how they can belong to body. or be produced by it; we think them the actions of some other substance, which we call spirit: Of whose substance, or nature, we have as clear a notion as that of body; the one being but the supposed substratum of the simple ideas we have from without; as the other of those operations which we experiment in ourselves within: So that the idea of corporeal substance in matter, is as temote from our conceptions as that of spiritual substance.

\$ 4. Hence we may conclude that he has the perlectest idea of any particular substance, who has colacted most of those simple ideas which do exist in it: Among which we are to reckon its active powers, and affive capacities, though not strictly simple ideas.

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§ 5. Secondary qualities, for the most part, serve to issinguish substances. For our senses fail us in the iscovery of the Bulk, Figure Texture, &c. of the minute parts of bodies on which their real constitutions and differences depend: And secondary qualities are othing but powers with relation to our senses. The

ideas

ideas that make our complex ones of corporeal substances. are of three forts. First, The ideas of primary qualities of things, which are discovered by our fenses: Such are Bulk, Figure, Motion, &c. Secondly, The fensible fecondary qualities, which are nothing but powers to produce feveral ideas in us by our fenses, Thirdly, The apmess we consider in any substance to eause, or receive such alterations of primary qualities, as that the substance so altered, should produce in m different ideas, from what it did before: And they are called Active and Passive Powers. All which, a far as we have any notice, or notion of them, terminate in simple ideas.

§ 6. Had we senses acute enough to discern the minute particles of bodies, it is not to be doubted but they would produce quite different ideas in us; as we find in viewing things with microscopes! Such bodies as to our naked eyes are coloured and opaque, will through miscroscopes appear pellucid. Blood to the naked eye appears all red; but by a good microfcon we fee only fome red globules swimming in a tran-

sparent liquor.

§ 7. The infinite wife Author of our beings has fitted our organs, and faculties, to the conveniencia of life and the business we have to do here: We may by our fenfes know and distinguish things so far as to also clear accommodate them to the exigencies of this life. We have also in fight enough into their admirable contrivances, and wonderful effects to admire, and magnify the wisdom, power, and goodness of their Author. Such reral mo a knowledge as this, which is fuited to our prefeat og, Hop condition, we want not faculties to attain; and we are floving to

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§ 8 Besides the complex ideas we have of material Substances; by the simple ideas taken from the operations of our own minds, which we experiment in ourselves, as Thinking, Understanding, Willing, Knowing, &c. co-existing in the same substance, we are able to frame the complex idea of a Spirit. And this idea of an immaterial substance, is as clear as that we have of a material. By joining these with Substance, of which we have no distinct idea, we have the idea of a Spirit: And by putting together the ideas of coherent, folid parts, and power of being moved, joined with Substance, of which likewise we have no positive idea, we have the idea of Matter. The one is as clear and distinct as the other. The substance of Spirit is unknown to us; and so isthe fubstance of Body equally unknown to us: Two primary qualities or properties of Body, viz. Solid wherent parts, and impulse, we have distinct clear deas of: So likewise have we, of two primary quaities or properties of Spirit, Thinking and a power of Action, ' or a power of putting body into motion by thought. The ideas of Existence, Duration, and Mobility, are common to them both.' We have lo clear and diffinct ideas of several qualities inheent in bodies, which are but the various modificaions of the extension of cohering solid parts, and heir motion. We have likewise the ideas of the seeral modes of Thinking, viz. Believing, Doubtog, Hoping, Fearing, &c. as also of Willing and soving the Body consequent to it.

19. 'There is no reason why it should be thought

' strange that I make Mobility belong to Spirit: For

having no other idea of Motion but change of di-

flance, with other beings that are considered as at

rest, and finding that spirits, as well as bodies

' cannot operate but where they are, and that spirits

' do operate at several times in several places, I can not but attribute change of place to all finite spirits,'

§ 10. If this notion of Spirit may have some dif--ficulties in it, not easy to be explained, we have no more reason to deny or doubt of the existence of Spirits, than we have, to deny or doubt of the existence of Body: Because the notion of Body is cumbered with Ome difficulties very hard, and perhaps impossible to be explained. The divisibility in infinitum, for in-. stance, of any finite extension, involves us whether we grant or deny it in confequences impossible to be explicated, or made confistent. We have therefore much reason to be satisfied with our notion of Spirit, a with our notion of Body; and the existence of the one We have no other idea of the as well as the other. Supreme Being, but a complex one of Existence, Power Knowledge, Duration, Pleasure, Happiness, and of is veral other qualities, and powers which it is better to have than be without, with the addition of Infinit to each of thefe.

\$ 1 1. In which complex idea we may observe that there is no simple one, bating Infinity, which is malfo a part of our complex idea of other spirits; be cause in our ideas, as well of spirits as other things we are restrained to those we receive from Sensationand Reflection.

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C H A P. XXIV.

Of Collective Ideas of Substances.

HERE are other ideas of Substances which maybe called Collective, which are made up of many particular substances considered as united into one dea, as a Troop, Army, &c. which the mind makes by its power of composition. These collective ideas are but the artificial draughts of the mind bringing things remote, and independent into one view, the better to contemplate and discourse of them united nto one conception, and fignified by one name. For there are no things fo remote, which the mind cannot by this art of composition, bring into one idea, is is visible in that signified by the name Universe.

CHAP. XXV.

Of Relation.

THERE is another let of ideas, which the mindgets from the comparing of one thing with anther. When the mind so considers one thing, that tdoes as it were bring it to, and fet it by another, and carry its view from one to the other, this is Reation or Respect: And the denominations given to hings intimating that Respect, are what we call Retives, and the things to brought together Related.

Thus:

Thus when I call Cajus, Husband, or Whiter, I intimate fome other person, or thing, in both cases, with Any of our ideas may be which I compare him. the foundation of Relation.

§ 2. Where languages have failed to give corelative names, there the Relation is not so easily taken notice of: as in Concubine, which is a Relative name, as well as Wife.

§ 3. The ideas of Relation may be the same, in those men who have far different ideas of the things that are Related. Thus those who have different ideas, of Man, may agree in that of Father.

§ 4. There is no idea of any kind, which is not capable of an almost infinite number of considerations, in reference to other things: And therefore this makes y product no small part of mens words and thoughts. Thus one fingle man may at once sustain the Relations of Fa- wo forts ther, Brother, Son, Husband, Friend, Subject, General ew, fo t European, Englishman, Mander, Master, Servant Bigger, Less, &c. to an almost infinite number; he be ing capable of as many Relations as there can be ecca fions of comparing him to other things in any manne of agreement, dilagreement, or respect whatsoever.

§ 5. The ideas of Relations are much clearer and more distinct than of the things related; because the knowledge of one simple idea is oftentimes sufficien to give me the notion of a Relation: But to th knowing of any substantial being, an accurate collec tion of fundry ideas is necessary.

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CHAP. XXVI.

Of Cause and Effect, and other Relations.

§ 1.

The ideas of Cause and Effect, we get from our observation of the vicissitude of things, while we perceive some qualities or substances begin to exist, and that they receive their existence from the due application and operation of other beings: That which produces, is the Cause; that which is produced, the effect. Thus Fluidity in wax is the effect of a cerain degree of heat, which we observe to be constantly produced by the application of such heat

§ 2. We distinguish the originals of things into wo forts. First, When the thing is wholly made ew, so that no part thereof did ever exist before, when a new particle of matter doth begin to ex-I, which had before no being; it is called Creation. wordly. When a thing is made up of particles which dall of them before exist, but the thing so coninted of pre existing particles, which altogether ake up fuch a collection of simple ideas; had not y existence before, as this Man this Egg, this fi, &c This, when referred to a substance, proand in the ordinary course of nature, by an internal inciple, but let on work by some external agent, working by intentible ways which we perceive t, is called Generation. When the Cause is exnical, and the Effect produced by a fensible Sepaion or Juxta position of discernible parts, we call Making; and tuch are all artificial things. When

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any simple idea is produced, which was not in that subject before, we call it Alteration.

§ 3. The denominations of things taken from Time, are for the most part only Relations. Thus when it is said that queen Elizabeth lived sixty nine, and reigned forty-five years, no more is meant, than that the duration of her existence was equal to sixty-nine, and of her government to forty five annual revolutions of the sun: And so are all words answering, How long?

Toung and Old, and other words of Time, that are thought to stand for positive ideas, are indeed Relative; and intimate a Relation to a certain length of Duration, whereof we have the idea in our minds. Thus we call a man Young of Old, that has lived little or much of that time that men usually attain to This is evident from our application of these names to other things; for a Man is called Young at Twenty, but • Horse Old, &c. The Sun and Stars we call not Old at all, because we know not what period God has set to that fort of Beings.

§ 4. There are other ideas, that are truly Relative, which we fignify by names, that are though Positive and Absolute; such as Great and Little, Strong and Weak The things thus denominated are retered to some standards with which we compare them. Thus we call an "pple Great, that is bigger than the ordinary sort of those we have been used to. And Man Weak, that has not so much strength or power move as men usually have, or those of his own size.

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Of Identity and Diverfity.

6 1.

A Nother occasion the mind takes of comparing, is the very Being of Things: When considering a thing as existing at any certain time, or place, and comparing it with itself as existing at any other time, &c. it forms the ideas of Identity and Diversity When we see any thing in any certain time and place, we are sure, it is that very thing; and can be no other, how like soever it may be in all other respects.

- § 2. We conceiving it impossible, that two things of the same kind should exist together in the same place, we conclude that whatever exists any where at the same time, excludes all of the same kind, and is there itself alone. When therefore we demand whether any thing be the same, or no, it refers always to something that existed such a time, in such a place, which it was certain at that instant was the same with itself, and no other.
- § 3. We have ideas of three forts of substances, first of God. Secondly, Finite Intelligences, Thirdly, Bodies First, God being Eternal. Unalterable, and every where, concerning his Identity there can be no doubt. Secondly, Finite Spirits having had their determinate time and place of beginning to exist, the Relation to that time and place will always determine to each its Identity, as long as it exists. Thirdly, The same will hold of every particle of matter to which

which no addition or subtraction is made, three exclude not one another out of the fame place, yet each exclude those of the same kind out of the fame place.

§ 4. The Identity and Diversity of Modes and Relations, are determined after the same manner that Substances are; only the Actions of Finite Beings, as Motion and Thought, confisting in Succession, they cannot exist in different times and places as permanent Beings: For no motion or thought considered as at different times can be the same, each part thereof having a different beginning of Existence.

§ 5. From when it is plain, that Existence itfelf is the Principium Individuationis, which determines a Being to a particular time and place, incommunicable to two Beings of the fame kind. Thus, suppose an Atom existing in a determined time, and place; it is evident that considered in any instant, it and the is the same with itself, and will be so, as long as its existence continues. The same may be said of two, was fucce, or more, or any number of particles, whilst they don of I ever jumbled: But if one atom be taken away, it is reasons an not the same mass.

6 6. In Vegetables, the identity depends not on the same mals, and is not applied to the same thing. The reason of this is the difference between an animate body, and mass of matter; This being only the cohesion of particles any how united; The other mal Ident, fuch a disposition and organization of parts, as is fill and so far to receive and distribute nourishment, so as to con past as tinue and frame the wood, bark, leaves, &c. (of at

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Oak, for instance) in which consists the vegetable life. That therefore which has fuch an organization of parts partaking of one common life, continues to be the same Plant, though that life be communicated to new particles of matter vitally united to the living Plant.

§ 7. The case is not so much different in Brutes, but that any one may hence fee what makes an Ani-

mal, and continues it the same.

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6 8. The identity of the same Man likewise confifts in a participation of the same continued life. in sucmeding particles of matter vitally united to the same organized body.

6 9. To understand Identity aright, we must consider what Idea the word it is applied to stands for. It being one thing to be the fame Substance, another

the same Man, and a third the same Person.

§ 10 An Animal, is a living organized body: And the same animal, is the same continued life comnunicated to different particles of matter, as they hapen successively to be united to that body, and our noion of Man, is but of a particular fort of Animal.

11. Person stands for an intelligent being, that rasons and reflects, and can consider itself the same bing in different times and places; which it doth by hat Consciousness that is inteparable from thinking. by this every one is to himself what he calls Self, whout confidering whether that Self be continued in he same, or divers substances. In this confifts Permal Identity, or the famenels of a rational being: and so far as this consciousness extends backward to my past action, or thought, so far reaches the identity that person. It is the same Self now, it was then:

And it is by the same Self, with this present one, that now reflects on it, that that action was done.

§ 12. But it is enquired, whether if the fame fubstance, which thinks, be changed, it can be the ' fame person; or remaining the same, it can be different persons? I answer, that cannot be resolved. but by those who know what kind of substances ' they are that do think, and whether the conscious e ness of past actions can be transferred from one thinking substance to another. I grant, were the fame consciousness the same individual action, in ' could not: But, it being but a present representa-' tion of a past action, why it may not be possible, that that may be represented to the mind to have been, which really never was, will be hard to determine.

" As to the second part of the question, whether the fame immaterial substance remaining, there may be two distinct persons? All those who hold preexistence, are evidently of this mind, since the ' allow the foul to have no remaining consciousness of what it did in that pre-existent state, either whol-' ly separate from body, or informing any other bo dy; and if they should not, it is plain, experience would be against them So that personal iden tity reaching no farther than consciousness reaches a pre-existent spirit not having continued so man ages in a state of silence, must needs make diffe rent persons

§ 13. 'And thus we may be able, without an difficulty, to conceive the same person at the refurrection, though in a body not exactly in make of parts the same which he had here, the same con 6 sciousnet 4 fcio But wot

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ficiousness going along with the soul that inhabits it.

But yet the soul alone, in the change of bodies,

would scarce to any one, but to him that makes the

soul the man, be enough to make the same man.

over substance it matters not, which is conscious of pleasure or pain, capable of happiness or misery; and so is concerned for itself, as far as that consciousness extends. That with which the consciousness of this present thinking thing, can join itself, makes the same person, and is one self with it; and so attributes to itself, and owns all the actions of that thing, as its own, as far as that consciousness reaches.

§ 15. This Personal Identity is the object of reward and punishment, being that by which every one is concerned for himself. If the Consciousness went along with the little finger, when that was cut off, it would be the same self that was just before concerned for the whole body.

§ 16 If the same Socrates, waking and sleeping, did not partake of the same consciousness, they would not be the same Person. Socrates waking, could not be in justice accountable for what Socrates sleeping did, no more than one Twin, for what his brother Twin did, because their outsides were so like, that they could not be distinguished.

§ 17. But suppose I wholly lose the memory of some parts of my life, beyond a possibility of retrieving them, so that I shall never be conscious of them sain; am I not the same Person that did those actions, though I have now forgot them? I answer, that we must here take notice what the word I is applied to, which in this case is the man only: And the same

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man being prefumed to be the fame person, I is easily here supposed to stand also for the same person. But If it be possible for the same man, to have distinct incommunicable consciousness at different times, it is past doubt the same man would at different times. make different persons. Which we see is the sense of mankind in the folemnest declaration of their opinion ons, human laws not punishing the madman for the Tober man's actions, nor the fober man for what the madmen did; thereby making them two perfors Thus we say in English, such a one is not himself, or is besides himself, in which phrases it is infinuated, that Self is changed, and the Self same Person is no longer in that man.

§ 18. But is not a man drunk or fober the fame Person? Why else he is punished for the same sall he commits when drunk though he be never after wards conscious of it? Just as much the same person as a man that walks, and does other things in his fleep, is the same person, and is as answerable for any mischief he shall do in it. Human laws punish both with a justice suitable to their way of knowledge Because in these cases they cannot distinguish certain ly what is real, and what is counterfeit; and fo th ignorance in drunkenness or sleep is not admitted as plea. For though punishment be annexed to perso nality, and personality to consciousness; and the drunkard perhaps is not conscious of what he did yet human judicatures justly punish him, because th fact is proved against him; but want of consciousne cannot be proved for him. But in the great da wherein the Secrets of all Hearts Shall be laid ofth it may be reasonable to think no one shall be mad fleadily

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to answer for what he knows nothing of, but shall receive his doom, his own Conscience accusing, or else

excusing him.

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§ 19. 'I am apt enough to think I have, in treating of this subject, made some suppositions that will look strange to some readers, and possibly they are so in themselves: But yet, I think, they are fuch as are pardonable in this ignorance we are in of the nature of that thinking thing that is in us, and which we look on as ourselves. as we ordinarily do the foul of a man, for an immaterial substance, independent from matter, and indifferent alike to it all, there can from the nature of things be no abfurdity at all, to suppose that the same soul may, at different times, be united to different bodies, and with them make up, for that time, one man: As well as we suppose a part of a heep's body yesterday, should be a part of a man's body to morrow, and in that union make a vital part of Melibæus himself, as well as it did of his ram.'

\$ 20. To conclude, whatever substance begins to aist, it must during its existence be the same; Whatever compositions of substances begin to exist, during is union of those substances, the concrete must be he same. Whatsoever mode begins to exist, during sexistence it is the same: And so if the composition to of distinct substances, and different modes, the same rule holds. Whence it appears that the difficulties from names ill used, than from any obscurity in the things themselves. For whatever makes the specifick Idea, to which the name is applied, if that Idea theadily kept to, the distinction of any thing into

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the fame, and divers, will easily be conceived, and there can arise no doubt concerning it.

CHAP. XXVIII.

Of other Relations.

§ 1.

ALL simple Ideas, wherein are parts or degrees afford an occasion of comparing the subjects wherein they are to one another in respect of those simple Ideas. As Whiter, Sweeter, More, Less, &c these depending on the equality and excess of the same simple Idea, in several subjects may be called Proportional Relations.

- § 2. Another occasion of comparing things is taken from the circumstances of their origine, as Father Son, Brother, &c. these may be called Natural Relations.
- § 3. Sometimes the foundation of confidering things, is some act whereby any one comes by a moral right power, or obligation to do something: Such are General, Captain, Burgher; these are instituted and Voluntary Relations, and may be distinguished from the Natural, in that they are alterable and so parable from the persons to whom they sometimes be longed, though neither of the substances so related to destroyed. But natural relations are not alterable but are as lasting as their subjects.
- § 4. Another relation is the conformity or difagreement of mens voluntary actions to a rule to which they are referred, and by which they are judged of

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These may be called Moral Relations. It is this conformity or disagreement of our actions to some law (whereby good or evil is drawn on us from the will and power of the law maker, and is what we call Reward or Punishment) that renders our actions morally good, or evil.

§ 5. Of these moral Rules or Laws, there seem to be three sorts with their different enforcements. First, the Divine Law. Secondly, Civil Law. Thirdly, The Law of Opinion or Reputation. By their relation to the sirst, our actions are either Sins or Duties: To the second, Criminal or Innocent: To the third, Virtues or Vices.

which God has set to the actions of men, whether promulgated to them by the light of nature, or the voice of Revelation. That God has given a law to mankind, seems undeniable, since he has, First, A right to do it, we are his creatures. Secondly, Goodness and wisdom to direct our actions to what is best. Thirdly, Power to enforce it by reward, and punishment of infinite weight and duration. This is the only true touchstone of moral rectitude, and by which men judge of the most considerable moral good or evil of their actions: that is, whether as duties or sins they are like to procure them happiness or mistery from the hands of the Almighty.

Commonwealth, to the actions of those that belong to it. This law no body over-looks; the rewards and punishments being ready at hand to enforce it, extending to the protecting or taking away of lite, therry, and estate of those who observe or disobey it.

§ 8. 3dly, The law of Opinion or Reputation, Virtue and Vice are names supposed every where, to stand for actions in their own nature, Right and Wrong. As far as they are really fo applied, they fo far are coincident with the divine law. visible that these names in the particular instances of their application, through the feveral nations and focieties of men, are constantly attributed only to such actions as, in each country and fociety, are in reputation or discredit. So that the measure of what is every where called and esteemed virtue and vice, is the approbation or diflike, praise or blame, which by a tacit confent establishes itself in the societies and tribes of men in the world; whereby feveral actions come to find credit or difgrace amongst them, according to the judgment, maxims, or fashions of the place.

§ 9. That this is so, appears hence: That though that passes for Virtue in one place, which is elsewhere accounted Vice; yet every where Virtue and Praise, Vice and Blame go together; Virtue is every where that which is thought praise-worthy: And nothing else but that which has the allowance of public esteem, is called Virtue. These have so close an alliance, that

they are often called by the same name.

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mendation and blame on that fide that deserved it not. They who think not commendation and difgrace sufficient motives to engage men to accommodate themselves to the opinions and rules of those with whom they converse, seem little skilled in the history of mankind. The greatest part whereof govern themselves chiefly by this law of Fashion.

The penalties that attend the breach of God's laws are seldom seriously reslected on, and those that do reslect on them, entertain thoughts of suture reconciliation. And for the punishment due from the laws of the commonwealth, men slatter themselves with the hopes of impunity: But no man escapes cenfore and dislike who offends against fathion; nor is there one of ten thousand stiff and insensible enough, to bear up under the constant dislike and condemnation of his own club.

§ 11. Morality then is nothing but a relation to hele laws or rules; and thefe rules being nothing out a collection of feveral simple ideas, the confornity thereto is but so ordering the action, that the imple ideas belonging to it, may correspond to those which the law requiries. By which we fee how moal beings, and notions are founded on, and termipated in the simple ideas of sensation and restection. or example, let us consider the complex idea signiled by the word Murder. First from reflection, we ave the ideas of Willing Considering, Purposing Maice. &c. Also of Life, Perception, and Self-Motion. secondly from Sentation, we have the ideas of man, and of some action whereby we put an end to that erception and motion in the man, all which simple has are comprehended in the word Murder.

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This collection of simple ideas being found to a. gree or difagree with the esteem of the country! have been bred in, and to be held worthy of praise or blame, I call the action Virtuous or Vicious. I I have the will of a Supreme Invisible Law makes for my rule, then, as I suppose the action command. ed or forbidden by God, I call it Good or Evil, Sin or Duty: If I compare it with the Civil Law of my Country, I call it Lawful or Unlawful, a Crime of no Crime.

§ 12. Moral actions may be considered two ways.

First, as they are in themselves a collection of fimple ideas, in which fense they are positive absolut ideas. Secondly, As Good or Bad, or Indifferent: 1 this respect they are Relative, it being their confor mity or disagreement with some rule that makes the We ought carefully to distinguish betwee the positive idea of the action, and the reference has to a rule: Both which are commonly compre hended under one name, which often occasions con fusion, and misleads the judgment.

§ 13. Thus the taking from another what is hi without his confent, is properly called Stealing: B that name being commonly understood to fignify all casion to the moral pravity of the action, men are apt to co demn whatever they hear called Stealing as an ill a tion, disagreeing with the rule of Right. And y hose sim the private taking away his sword from a madman terminate prevent his doing mischief, though it be properly nominated Stealing, as the name of such a mix Mode, yet when compared to the law of God, it by the of

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§ 14. It would be infinite to go over all forts of Relations; I have here mentioned some of the most considerable, and such as may serve to let us see from whence we get our ideas of Relations, and wherein they are founded.

CHAP. XXIX.

Of clear, obscure, distinct, and confused ideas.

§ 1.

Having shown the original of our ideas, and taken a view of their several sorts: I shall offer some sew other considerations concerning them. The first is, that some are clear, others obsure: Some listinct, and others confused.

§ 2. Our simple ideas are clear, when they are such as the objects themselves from whence they were taken, did in a well-ordered sensation or perception present them. Whilst the memory retains them thus, and can produce them so to the mind when it has octasion to consider them, they are clear ideas. Our simplex ideas are clear when the ideas that go to their composition are clear: And the number and order of those simple ideas, that are their ingredients, is determinate and certain.

§ 3. The cause of Obscurity in simple ideas seems to be either dull organs, or slight impressions made by the objects, or a weakness in the memory, not ble to retain them as received.

§ 4. A distinct idea is that wh erein the mind pe. ceives a difference from all other: And a confused, is fuch an one as is not sufficiently distinguishable from another from which it ought to be different. Obscurity is opposed to clearness, confusion to distinctuess,

§ 5. This confusion incident to ideas, is only in reference to their names. For every idea a man has being visibly what it is, and distinct from all other ideas but itself, that which makes it confused is, when it is such that it may as well be called by another name as that which it is expressed by, the difference proporti which keeps the things distinct, and makes some of them to belong rather to the one, and some of them and is so to the other of those names being left out; and so Pumpey; the distinction which was intended to be kept up by times. ese different names is quite lost.

Confusion is occasioned chiefly by the following de ya nam these different names is quite lost.

First, When any complex idea (for it is complet puts plex ideas that are most liable to confusion) is mad the of Ch up of too small a number of simple ideas, and such seither, as are common to other things: Whereby the differ ambination ences that make it deserve a different name, are les we a con out. Thus an idea of a Leopard being conceive m always only as a spotted beast, is consused; it not bein thich most thereby sufficiently distinguished from a Panther, an son there other forts of beasts that are spotted. Where the ideas for which we use different terms, have not difference answerable to their distinct names, and cannot be distinguished by them, there it is that the are truly confused.

§ 7. Secondly, When the ideas are so jumbled to tidea wh gether in the complex one, that it is not eafily differ \$ 9. It ible, whether it more belongs to the name given

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than to any other. We may conceive this confufion by a fort of pictures usually shewn, wherein the colours mark out very odd and unufual figures, and have no discernible order in their position. when said to be the picture of a Man or Cafar, we reckon confused, because it is not discernible in that fate, to belong more to the name Man or Cefar, han to the name Baboon or Pompey. But when a glindrical mirror rightly placed, hath reduced those negular lines on the table, into their due order and proportion, then the eye presently sees that it is a Man or Cafar; that is, that it belongs to those names. nd is sufficiently distinguishable from a Baboon or Pumpey; that is, from the ideas. fignified by those ames.

§ 8. Thirdly, When any one of our ideas signified e y a name is uncertain and undetermined. Thus he that puts in, or leaves out an idea out of his complex do of Church or Idolatory, every time that he thinks feither, and holds not steady to any one precise mbination of ideas, that makes it up, is said to we a confused idea of Church or Idolatory. Confum always concerns two ideas, and those most, hich most approach one another To avoid conion therefore we ought to examine what other it in danger to be confounded with, or which it can: teafily be separated from; and that will be found idea belonging to another name, and to should be Afferent thing, from which yet it is not sufficiently linct, and so keeps not that difference from that atidea which the different name imports.

9. It is to be observed that our complex ideas The very clear and distinct in one part, and very obicure obscure and confused in another. Thus in Chiliandrum, or Body of a Thousand Sides, the idea of the figure may be confused, though that of the number be very distinct: We can discourse and demonstrate concerning that part of this complex idea which depends on the number Thousand; though it is plain we have no precise idea of its figure, so as to distinguish it by that from one that has but Nine Hundred Ninety-nine sides. The not observing this causes no small error in mens thoughts, and confusion in their discourses.

CHAP. XXX.

Of Real and Fantastical Ideas.

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Our ideas in reference to things from whence the are taken, or which they may be supposed to represent, come under a Threefold distinction, and are, First, either Real or Fantastical. Secondly, A dequate or Inadequate. Thirdly, True or False.

By real ideas I mean fuch as have a foundation in nature, fuch as have a conformity with the real being and existence of things, or with the Archetypes.

Fantastical are such as have no foundation in nature, nor any conformity with that reality of being to which they are referred as to their Archetypes.

§ 2. By examining the feveral forts of ideas we shall find, that First, our simple ideas are all real; no that they are images or representations of what doe exist

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things without us, ordained by our Maker, to produce in us such sensations: They are real ideas in us, whereby we distinguish the qualities that are really in things themselves. Their reality lies in the steady correspondence they have with the distinct constitutions of real beings. But whether they answer to those constitutions as to Causes or Patterns, it matters not; it sufficies that they are constantly produced by them.

§ 3. Complex ideas being arbitrary combinations of simple ideas put together, and united under one general name, in forming of which the mind uses its liberty; we must enquire which of these are real, and which imaginary combinations, and to this I say, that,

§ 4. First, Mixed modes and relations, having no other reality than what they have in the minds of men; nothing else is required to make them real, out a possibility of existing conformable to them. These ideas being themselves Archetypes, cannot difter from their Archetypes, and so cannot be chimerial; unless any one will jumble together in them inmussistent ideas. Those indeed that have names assigned them in any language, must have a conforming to the ordinary signification of the name that is given them, that they may not be thought fantastical.

§ 5. Secondly, Our complex ideas of Substances eing made, in reference to things existing without s, whose representations they are thought, are no ather real, than as they are such combinations of imple ideas, as are really united and coexist in things without us. Those are fantastical which are made

up of several ideas, that never were found united, a Centaur, &c.

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CHAP. XXXI.

Of Ideas Adequate or Inadequate.

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REAL ideas are either Adequate or Inadequate First, Adequate, which perfectly represent those Archetypes which the mind supposes them taken from and which it makes them to stand for. Secondly, Inadequate, which are such as do but partially or incompleately represent those Archetypes to which the are referred: Whence it appears,

§ 2. First, That all our simple ideas are Adequate for they being but the effects of certain powers in things fitted and ordained by God, to produce such sensations in us, they cannot but be correspondent and adequate to such powers, and we are sure the

agree to the reality of things.

S 3. Secondly, Our complex ideas of modes being voluntary collections of simple ideas, which the mind puts together without reference to any real Arche types, cannot but be Adequate ideas. They are referred to no other pattern, nor made by any original but the good liking and will of him that makes the combination. If indeed one would confirm his ideas to those which are formed by another person, the may be wrong or Inadequate, because they agree no to that which the mind designs to be their archetyp

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JP an and pattern. In which respect only, any ideas of modes can be wrong, imperfect, or inadequate.

§ 4. Thirdly, Our ideas of Substances have in the mind a double reference: First, They are sometimes referred to a supposed real essence, of each species of things. Secondly, They are designed for representations in the mind of things that do exist, by ideas discoverable in them: In both which respects they are Inadequate.

First, If the names of Substances stand for things, as supposed to have certain real essences, whereby they are of this or that species, (of which real esfences men are wholly ignorant and know nothing) it plainly follows that the ideas they have in their minds, being referred to real essences, as Archetypes which are unknown, they must be so far from being Adequate, that they cannot be supposed to be any reprefortation of them at all. Our complex ideas of Substances are, as have been shown, nothing but certain collections of fimple ideas that have been observed, or apposed constantly to exist together. But such a complex idea cannot be the real essence of any Substance: For then the properties we discover in it would be deducible from it, and their necessary connection with it be known, as all the properties of a Triangle depend on, and are deducible from the complex idea of Three Lines including a space: But it is tertain that in our complex ideas of Substances, are not contained such ideas on which all the other qualities that are to be found in them depend.

§ 5. Secondly, Those that take their ideas of Subflances from their sensible qualities, cannot form Adequate ideas of them: Because their qualities and

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powers are so various, that no man's complex ide can contain them all. Most of our simple idea whereof our complex ones of Substances do confid are powers which being relations to other Substance we cannot be fure we know all the powers, till w have tried what changes they are fitted to give at receive from other Substances, in their feveral wa of application: Which being not possible to be tri upon one body, much less upon all, it is impossible we should have Adequate ideas of any Substance made of a collection of all its properties.

C H A P. XXXII.

Of True and False Ideas.

RUTH and Fallhood in propriety of speech beld only to propositions; and when ideas are te ed True or False, there is some secret or tacit pro fition, which is the foundation of that denominat Our ideas being nothing but Appearances or Perce ons in the mind, can in strictness of speech no m be faid to be true or falfe, than fingle names of the The idea of Gent can be said to be true or false. has no more faishood in it, when it appears in minds, than the name Centaur when it is pronou For truth or falseshood lying or writ on paper. not capable, any of them, of being false, till med Modes their f mind passes some judgment on them; that is, as or denies something of them. In a metaphysical dilinguish

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hey may be said to be true, that is, to be really such sthey exist; though in things called true, even in hat sense, there is perhaps a secret reference to our has, looked upon as the standards of that truth; hich amounts to a mental proposition.

ing extraneous to it, they are then capable of being me or false: Because in such a reference the mind akes a tacit supposition of their conformity to that ing; which supposition, as it is true or false, so the has themselves come to be denominated. This hapmas in these cases: First. When the mind supposes its ha, conformable to that in other mens minds; called by a same name, such as that of Justice, Virtue. &c.

Secondly, When the mind supposes any idea con-

mable to some real existence. Thus that of Man is the that of Gentaur false, the one having a conmity to what has really existed; the other not. Willy, When the mind refers any of its ideas to streat constitution, and essence of any thing whereall its properties depend: And thus the greatest it, if not all our ideas of Substances, are false.

13. As to the First, When we judge of our ideas their conformity to those of other men, they may be not them false. But simple ideas are least liable to smistaken; we seldom mistake Green for Blue or the for Sweet; much less do we consound the mes belonging to different senses, and call a Colour the name of a Taste Complex ideas are much whale to falsehood in this particular: And those of and Modes more than Substances. Because in Subtes their sensible qualities serve for the most part dilinguish them clearly: But in Mixed Modes

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we are more uncertain, and we may call that Juffice, which ought to be called by another name. The reafon of this is, that the abstract ideas of Mixed Modes. being mens voluntary combinations of fuch a precise collection of simple ideas, we have nothing else to refer our ideas of Mixed Modes as standards to; but the ideas of those who are thought to use names in their proper fignifications: And fo as our ideas conform or differ from them, they pass for true or falle,

§ 4. As to the Second, When we refer our ideas to the real existence of things none can be termed falle.

but our complex ideas of Substances.

& c. For our simple ideas being nothing but perceptions in us answerable to certain powers in external objects, their truth confifts in nothing but fuch appearances, as are produced in us suitable to those powers: Neither do they become liable to the imputation of follhood, whether we judge these ideas to be in the things themselves, or no. For God having se them as marks of distinguishing things, that we may be able to discern one thing from another, and there by chuse them as we have occasion; it alters not the nature of our simple ideas, whether we think the idea of Blue (for instance) to be in the Violet itself, or it the mind only: And it is equally from that appear ance to be denominated Blue, whether it be the real colour, or only a peculiar texture in it, the causes in us that idea: Since the name Blue note properly nothing but that mark of distinction, the is in a Violet, discernible only by our eyes, whateve t consists in.

Neither would our simple ideas be false, if by th different structure of our organs it were so ordere tha

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that the same object should produce in several mens minds different ideas. For this could never be known since objects would operate constantly after the same manner. It is most probable nevertheless, that the ideas produced by the same objects in different mens minds, are very near and undiscernibly like Names of simple ideas may be misapplied, as a man ignorant in the English tongue may call Purple, Scarlet: But this makes no falshood in the ideas.

§ 6. Complex ideas of modes cannot be false in reference to the essence of any thing really existing; because they have no reference to any pattern existing, or made by nature.

§ 7. Our complex ideas of Substances, being all referred to patterns in things themselves, may be false. They are fo, First, When looked upon as representations of the unknown essences of things. Secondly, When they put together simple ideas which, in the real existence of things, have no union: As in Centaur. Thirdly, When from any collection of simple ideas, that do always exist together, there is separated by a direct negation any one simple idea, which is constantly joined with them. Thus, if from extension. folidity, fixedness, malleableness, fusibility, &c. we remove the colour observed in Gold If this idea be only left out of the complex one of Gold, it is to be boked on as an inadequate and imperfect, rather han a false one: Since, though it contains not all the simple ideas, that are united in nature: Yet it puts lone together, but what do really exist together

§ 8. Upon the whole, I think that our ideas as they are confidered by the mind, either in reference to the proper fignification of their names, or in re-

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ference.

ference to the reality of things, may more properly be called Right or Wrong ideas, according as they a gree or difagree to those patterns to which they are referred. The ideas that are in mens minds simple considered, cannot be wrong, unless complex ideas wherein inconsistent parts are jumbled together. A other ideas are in themselves right, and the knowledge about them right, and true knowledge. But when we come to refer them to any patterns, or an energy of them they are capable of being wrong, a far as they disagree with such archetypes.

CHAP. XXXIII.

Of the Association of Ideas.

§ 1.

THERE is scarce any one that does not obser fomething that seems odd to him, and is in self really extravagant in the opinions, reasonings, a actions of other men. The least slaw of this kin if at all different from his own, every one is quie sighted enough to espy, and forward to condemn another, though he be guilty of much greater unresonableness in his own tenets and conduct, which never perceives, and will very hardly be convinced

puted to Education and Prejudice, and for the mapart truly enough; though that reaches not the bound to the difeate, nor shows distinctly enough when it lifes, or wherein in lies. Education is of rightly affigned for the cause; and prejudice is

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good general name for the thing itself; but yet I think he ought to look a little farther who would made it to the root it springs from, and so explain it, as to show whence this staw has its original in very sober and rational minds, and wherein it consists. For this being a weakness to which all men are liable, and a taint which universally infects mankind, the greater care should be taken to lay it open.

§ 3. Some of our ideas have a natural correspondence and connexion one with another: It is the office and excellency of our reason to trace these, and hold them together in that union and correspondence which is founded in their peculiar beings. this, there is another connection of ideas wholly owing to chance or custom: Ideas that in themselves are not at all of kin, come to be fo united in some mens minds, that it is very hard to separate them; they always keep company, and the one no fooner comes into the understanding, but its affociate appears with it; and if they are more than two, the whole gang always inteparably show themselves together. frong combination of ideas not allied by nature, the mind makes in itself either voluntarily, or by chance: and hence it comes in different men to be very difbrent, according to their different Inclinations, Eduentions, Interests, &c. Custom tettles habits of Thinking in the Understanding as well as of Determining in the Will, and of motion in the Body; which feem to be but trains of motion in the Asimal Spirits, which once fet a going, continue on in the fame steps they have been used to; which by of-In trading are worn into a smooth path, and the mofon in it becomes easy, and, as it were, natural. far

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far as we can comprehend Thinking, thus ideas feem to be produced in our minds; or if they are not, this may ferve to explain their following one another in an habitual train, when once they are put into that track, as well as it does to explain such motions of the Body.

§ 4 This connexion in our minds of ideas in themselves loofe and independent one of another, is of so great force to set us awry in our actions, as well moral as natural, passions, reasonings, and notions themselves, that perhaps there is not any one thing that deserves more to be looked after. the ideas of Goblins and Sprights have really no more to do with Darkness than Light; yet let but a foolist Maid inculcate these often on the mind of a Child and raise them there together, possibly he shall nevel be able to separate them again so long as he lives but Darkness shall ever afterwards bring with it those frightful ideas. A man has suffered pain or sickness in any place; he faw his friend die in fuch a room though these have in nature nothing to do one with another, yet when the idea of the place occurs to his mind, it brings that of the Pain and Displeature with it, he confounds them in his mind, and can as little bear the one as the other.

S 5. Intellectual Habits and Defects this way contracted are not less trequent and powerful, though less observed. Let the ideas of Being and Matthe be strongly joined either by Education or much Thought, whilst these are still combined in the mind, what notions, what reasonings will there be about separate Spirits? Let Custom from the very Childhood have joined Figure and Shape to the idea.

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of God, and what absurdities will that mind be liable to about the Deity? Let the idea of Infallibility be joined to any person, and these two constantly together possess the mind, and then one Body in two places at once, shall be swallowed for a certain truth, whenever that imagined Infallible Person dictates and demands affent without inquiry.

6 6. Some such wrong combinations of ideas will be found to establish the irreconcileable opposition between different feets of philosophy and religion: For we cannot imagine every one of their followers to impose wilfully on himself, and knowingly refuse. buth offered by plain Reason. Interest, though it does a great deal in the case, yet cannot be thought work whole focieties of men to fo universal a perverlenels, as that every one of them should knowingmaintain falsehood: Some at least must be allowed to do what all pretend to; i. e. to purfue truth fine cerely. That therefore which captivates their reasons, and leads men of fincerity blindfold from common lense, will, when examined, be found to be, what we are speaking of: Some independent ideas, are by education, custom, and the constant din of their party fo coupled in their minds, that they always appear there together, and they can no more separate them in their thoughts, than if they were but one idea; and they operate as if they were fo. This gives sense to jurgon, demonstration to absurdities, and confiftency to nonlense, and is the foundation of the greatest, I had almost faid, of all the errors in the world: Or, if it does not reach so far, it is at least the most dangerous one, since so far as it obtains it hinders men from feeing and examining. The confulion

fusion of two different ideas which a customary connexion of them in their minds hath to them in effect made but one, cannot but fill mens heads with false views, and their reasonings with false consequences.

Mal Sorts and Extent of our ideas, which are the informents or materials of our knowledge, I should immediately proceed to show, what use the understanding makes of them, and what knowledge we have by them. But, upon a nearer approach, I find that there is so close a connexion between ideas and words; and our abstract ideas and general words have so constant a relation one to another, that it is impossible to speak clearly and distinctly of our knowledge, which all consists in propositions, without considering first, the Nature, Use, and Signification of Language, which therefore must be the business of the next Book.



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BOOK III.

CHAP. I.

Of Words or Language in General.

§ 1.

Ture, made him not only with an inclination, and under a necessity to have fellowship with those of his own kind, but furnished him also with Language, which was to be the great instrument and common tie of society. Man therefore had by nature his organs so sashioned, as to be fit to frame triculate sounds, which we call Words.

§ 2. But besides articulate sounds (which birds may be taught to imitate) it was further necessary that he should be able to use these sounds as signs of internal Conceptions, and make them stand as marks of the ideas in his mind, whereby they might be made known to others.

§ 3. But neither is it enough for the perfection of language, that sounds can be made signs of ideas, while these can be made use of, so as to comprehend the particular things; for the multiplication of words would have perplexed their use, had every particular thing need of a distinct name to be signified by. To remedy this inconvenience, Language and yet a farther improvement in the use of General same, whereby one word was made to mark a multitude

of sounds was obtained only by the difference of ideas they were made signs of. Those names becoming general, which are made to stand for general ideas; and those remaining particular, where ideas they are used for are particular. There is other words which signify the want or absence of deas, as Ignorance, Barrenness, &c. which relate positive ideas, and signify their absence.

§ 4. It is observable that the words which sta for Actions and Notions, quite removed from fer are borrowed from fensible ideas, v. g. to Imagi Apprehend, Comprehend, Understand, Adhere, Co ceive, Instil, Digust, Disturbance, Tranquillity, which are all taken from the Operations of This Sensible, and applied to modes of Thinking. Sp. in its primary fignification is no more than breat Angel a messenger. By which we may guess w kind of notions they were, and whence derive which filled the minds of the first beginners of l guages, and how nature, even in the naming things unawares, suggested to men the originals of their knowledge: Whilst to give names that mi make known to others any operations they felt themselves, or any other ideas, that came not un their fenies, they were fain to borrow words fr the ordinary and known ideas of Sensation.

§ 5. The better to understand the Use and so of Language, as subservient to Knowledge, it will convenient to consider.

First, To what it is that Names in the use of I guage are immediately applied.

Secondly, Since all (except proper names) are

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mil, and so stand not for this or that single thing, in for Sorts and Ranks: It will be necessary to conder what those sorts and kinds of things are; where they consist, and how they come to be made. This shall be considered in the following chapters.

CHAP. II.

of the Signification of Words.

6 I.

MAN, though he have great variety of thoughts, yet are they all within his own breast, invisihe and hidden from others, nor can of themselves made to appear. It was necessary therefore, for comfort and advantage of Society, that man hould find out some External Signs, whereby those wisible ideas might be made known to others. hich purpose nothing was so fit either for plenty quickness, as those Articulate Sounds he found him-If able to make. Hence words came to be made fe of by men, as figns of their ideas: Not upon the account of any natural connexion between articuate founds, and certain ideas; for then there would but one Language amongst all men: but by a duntary imposition, whereby such a word is made bitrarily the mark of such an idea. The use then words, is to be fensible marks of our ideas; and he ideas they stand for, are their proper and immehate Signification: In which they stand for nothing bre but the ideas in the mind of him that uses them. or when a man speaks to another, it is that he may

be understood; that is, that his founds may mak known his ideas to the hearer.

of 2. Words being voluntary Signs, cannot be im posed on things we know not: This would be to make them signs of nothing, sounds without significations. A man cannot make his words the sign either of Qualities in things, or of Conceptions in the mind of another, whereof he has no ideas in his own

S 3. Words in all mens mouths (that speak with a ny meaning) stand for the ideas which those that use them have, and which they would express by them. Thus a Child that takes notice of nothing more in the metal he hears called Gold, than the Yellow Colour, calls the same colour in a Peacock's tail Gold. Another, that hath better observed, adds to shining Yellow, great Weight; and then the sound Gold stands, when he uses it, for a complex idea of a shining Yellow, and very weighty Substance.

§ 4. Though words signify properly nothing but the ideas in mens minds, yet they are in their thoughts

fecretly referred to two other things.

First, They suppose their words to be marks of ideas, in the minds of other men with whom they communicate; else they could not discourse intelligibly with one another: In this case men stand not to examine whether their ideas and those of other men be the same; they think it enough that they use the word in the common acceptation of that Language.

§ 5. Secondly, They suppose their words to stand al-

so for the reality of things.

§ 6. Words then being immediately the signs of mens ideas, whereby they express their thoughts and imaginations to others, there arises by constant use such

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fund for; that the names heard almost as readily exthe certain ideas, as if the objects themselves were present to the senses.

- § 7. And because we examine not precisely the signification of words, we often in attentive consideration set our thoughts more on words than things: Nay, some (because we often learn words before we know the ideas they stand for) speak several words no otherwise than Parrots do, without any meaning at all. But so far as words are of use and signification, so far there is a constant connexion between the sound and idea; and a designation that the one shand for the other; without which application of them, they are nothing but insignificant noise.
- § 8. Since then words fignify only mens peculiar ileas, and that by an arbitrary imposition, it follows that every man has an inviolable liberty to make words stand for what ideas he pleases. It is true, common use by a tacit consent appropriates certain bunds to certain ideas in all Languages; which so far limits the fignification of each found, that unless a man applies it to the same ideas, he cannot speak prowhy: And unless a man's words excite the same was in the hearer, which he makes them stand for in beaking, he cannot speak intelligibly. But whatever the consequence of any man's use, of words, diffrent either from their public use, or that of the ersons to whom he addresses them, this is certain, their fignification in his use of them is limited to his has, and they can be signs of nothing else.

CHAP. III.

Of General Terms.

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A LL things that exist being Particulars, it might be expected that words should be so too it their signification: But we find it quite contrary for most of the words that make all languages as General Terms. This is the effect of Reason an Necessity; for,

§ 2. First, It is impossible that every particular thing should have a distinct peculiar name, because it impossible to have distinct ideas of every particular thing; to retain its name, with its peculiar appropriation to that idea.

S 3. Secondly, It would be useless, unless all could be supposed to have the same ideas in their minds. For names applied to particular things, whereof alone have the ideas in my mind, could not be significant or intelligible to another, who is not acquainted with all those particular things which had failed under my notice.

Marticular things, enlarges itself by general views to which things reduced into forts under general names, are properly subservient. In things where we have occasion to consider and discourse of Individuals and particulars, we use proper names: As in Persons Countries, Cities, Rivers, Meuntains, &c. Thus we see

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general no things that therefore he that Jockeys have particular names for their horses; hecause they often have occasion to mention this or that particular horse when he is out of sight.

General Words come to be made. Words become general by being made figns of General Ideas: Ideas become general by separating from them, the circumfances of Time, Place, or any other ideas that may determine them to this or that particular existence: By this way of Abstraction, they become capable of representing more Individuals, than one: Each of which having a conformity to that abstract idea, is of that fort.

§ 6. But it may not be amiss to trace our notions and names, from their beginning; and observe by what degrees we proceed and enlarge our ideas, from our first infancy. It is evident that the first ideas Children get, are only particular, as of the Nurse or Mother, and the names they give them are confined to these Individuals. Afterwards observing that there are great many other things in the world, that refemble hem in shape, and other qualities, they frame an the which they find those many particulars do partake in; to that they give with others the name Man mexample; in this they make nothing new, but only leave out of the complex idea they had of Peter. James, Mary, &c. that which is peculiar to each. and retain only what is common to all. And thuis they come to have a general name, and a general idea. \$ 7. By the same method they advance to more

meral names and notions. For observing several things that differ from their idea of Man, and cannot therefore be comprehended under that name, to agree

with Man in some certain qualities, by retaining only those qualities, and uniting them into one idea, the have another more general idea, to which giving name they make a term of a more comprehensive extension. Thus by leaving out the shape, and some other properties signified by the name Man, and retaining only a body with life, sense, and spontaneous motion; we form the idea, signified by the name Animal. By the same way the mind proceeds to Body Substance, and at last, to Being, Thing, and such universal Terms, which stand for any ideas whatsoever Hence we see that the whole mystery of Genus an Species, is nothing else but abstract ideas more or lescomprehensive, with names annexed to them.

§ 8. This shews us the reason why in defining words, we make use of the Genus: Namely to save the labour of enumerating the several simple ideas, which the next general term stands for. But though defining by Genus, and differentia, be the shorted way; yet, I think, it may be doubted whether is be the best. This I am sure it is not the only, and so not absolutely necessary. From what has been said it is plain that General and Universal belong no to the real existence of things; but are inventions of the Understanding made by it for its own use, and concern only signs, either words or ideas.

§ 9. It must be considered in the next place, who kind of signification it is that general words have It is evident that they do not barely signify one particular thing: For then they would not be generaterms, but proper names: Neither do they signify Plurality; for then Man and Men would signify the same thing; but that which they signify, is a fort of things.

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things alike, and so lays the foundation of this sorting and classing: But the sorts or species themselves are the workmanship of Human Understanding: So that every distinct abstract idea, is a distinct Essence, and the names that stand for such distinct ideas, are the names of things essentially different. Thus Oval, sincle, Rain and Snow are essentially different. To make this clearer, it may not be amiss to consider the several significations of the word Essence.

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§ 12. Secondly, In the Schools the word Essence has been almost wholly applied to the artificial confliction of Genus and Species; it is true, there is ordinarily supposed a real constitution of the sorts of things: And it is past doubt there must be some real constitution, on which any collection of simple ideas, coexisting, must depend. But it being evident that things are ranked into sorts, under names only as they agree to certain abstract ideas, to which we have annexed those names, the effence of each Genus or Species, is nothing but the abstract idea, which the

AN ABRIDGMENT OF Book III the name stands for; this the word Esfence import in its most familiar use.

\$ 13. These two sorts of Essence may not unfitte be termed the one Real, the other Nominal. Be tween the nominal Essence and the name, there is fe near a connexion, that the name of any fort of things cannot be attributed to any particular being, bu what has the Effence whereby it answers that abstract idea, whereof that name is the fign.

§ 14. Concerning the real Essences of corporea Substances, there are two opinions.

First, Some using the word Essence for they know not what, suppose a certain number of those Essences. according to which, all natural things are made, and of which they equally partake, and do become of this or of that Species.

Secondly, Others look on all natural things to have a real, but unknown constitution of their insensible parts, from whence flow their fensible qualities, which ferve us to distinguish them one from another; and according to which we rank them into forts, under common denominations. The former supposition feems irreconcileable with the frequent production of monsters, in all the species of Animals: Since it is impossible that two things partaking of the same real Essence, should have different Properties. But were there no other reason against it; yet the supposition of Essences which cannot be known, and yet the making them to be that which distinguisheth the species of things, is so wholly useless and unserviceable to any part of Knowledge, that that alone were sufficient to had of t make us lay it by. 6 15

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§ 15. We may further observe that the nominal, nd real Essences of simple ideas and modes, are always the same: But in Substances always quite diffemt. Thus a figure including a space between three ines, is the real as well as nominal Essence of a triagle; it being that foundation from which all its properties flow, and to which they are inseparably mnexed; but it is far otherwise in Gold or any other fort of Substance; it is the real constitution of its in-Infible parts, on which depend all those Properties that are to be found in it; which constitution fince we know not, nor have any particular idea of, we can have no name that is the fign of it. But yet it is its Colour, Weight, Fusibility, and Fixedness, &c. which makes it to be Gold, or gives it a right to that name; which is therefore its nominal Effence, fince nothing can be called Gold but what has a conformiy to that abstract complex idea, to which that name is annexed.

farther appear by their being held ingenerable and inwruptible. This cannot be true of the real constimation of things. All things in Nature (fave the Auther of it) are liable to change: Their real Essences and Constitutions are destroyed and perish: But as they are ideas established in the mind, they remain immutable. For whatever becomes of Alexander or Bucephalus, the ideas of man and horse remain the same. By these means the Essence of Species rests as and entire, without the existence of one Individual of that kind.

§ 17. It is evident then that this doctrine of the mutability of Essences proves them to be only abstract

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Aract ideas, and is founded on the relation established between them and certain sounds, as signs of them and will always be true, as long as the same name can have the same signification.

CHAP. IV.

Of the Names of Simple Ideas.

§ 1.

ly, but the ideas in the mind of the Speaker yet we shall find that the names of simple Ideas mixed Modes, and natural Substances have each of them something peculiar. And,

§ 2. First, the names of simple ideas and substances, with the abstract Ideas in the Mind, intimate some real Existence, from which was derived their original pattern: But the names of mixed Modes terminate in the idea that is in the Mind.

§ 3. Secondly, The names of simple Ideas and Mode fignify the real as well as nominal Essences of their spe cies: The names of substances signify rarely, if ever a ny thing, but barely the nominal Essences of those species

§ 4. Thirdly, The names of simple Ideas are no eapable of Definitions; those of complex Ideas are The reason of which I shall show from the nature of our ideas, and the signification of words.

but the showing the meaning of one word, by se veral other, not synonymous Terms. The meaning of words being only the ideas they are made to stand for

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the meaning of any term is then showed, or the ord defined, when by other words the idea it is de the fign of, is, as it were, represented or set bethe view of another, and thus its fignification fertained.

66. The names then of simple ideas are incapable being defined, because the several terms of a Denition fignifying feveral ideas, they can altogether by means represent an idea which has no compositiat all, and therefore a Definition, which is but the lowing of the meaning of one word, by feveral oers not fignifying each the fame thing, can in the mes of simple ideas have no place.

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17. The not observing this difference in our ideas, s occasioned those trifling Definitions which are gia us of some simple ideas: Such as is that of moon, viz. The Act of a Being in Power, as far forth in Power. The Atomists, who define Motion to a Passage from one place to another, what do they ore than put one synonymous word for another? or what is Paffage other than a Motion? Nor will e successive application of the parts of the supersis of one body to those of another, which the Carsans give us, prove a much better definition of Moon when well examined.

§ 8. The Act of Perspicuous, as far forth as pericuous, is another Peripatetick definition of a simple a, which it is certain can never make the meaning the word Light, which it pretends to define, unaffood by a blind man. And when the Cartesians los, that Light is a great number of little gloles striking briskly on the bottom of the eye; these

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words would never make the idea the word Light stands for, known to a man that had it not before.

S 9. Simple ideas then can only be got by the impressions objects make on our minds, by the propositions objects make on our minds, by the propositions objects make on our minds, by the propositions appointed to each fort. If they are not received this way, all the words in the world will never be able to produce in us the ideas they stand for. Word being sounds, can produce in us no other simple idea than of those very sounds, nor excite any in us, but by that voluntary connexion which they have wit some ideas which common use has made them sign of: And therefore he that has not before received into his mind by the proper In-lett the simple idea which any word stands for can never come to know the signification of that word, by any other words of sounds whatsoever.

S 10. But in complex ideas which confift of feveral fimple ones, the case is quite otherwise; for word standing for those several ideas that make up the composition, may imprint complex ideas in the mine that never were there before, and so make their name be understood. In them definitions take place. The the word Rainbow, to one who knew all those colours, but yet had never seen that Phenomenon, might by enumerating the Figure, Largeness, Position, an Order of the Colours, be so well defined, that might be perfectly understood.

§ 11. Fourthly, This farther may be observed concerning simple ideas and their names, that the

have but few ascents in linea prædicamentali.

they call it) from the lowest Species to the summula Genus. The reason whereof is, that the lowe

species being but one simple idea, nothing can

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left out of it, that so the difference being taken away, it may agree with some other thing in one idea common to them both; which, having one name, is the Genus of the other two.

fances, and mixed Modes have also this difference, that those of mixed Modes stand for ideas perfectly arbitrary: Those of Substances are not perfectly so, but refer to a pattern, though with some latitude; and those of simple ideas are perfectly taken from the existence of things, and are not arbitrary at all.

The names of simple modes differ little from those of simple ideas.

CHAP. V.

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Of the Names of Mixed Modes and Relations.

§ 1.

The names of mixed Modes being general, stand for abstract ideas in the mind, as other general names do; but they have something peculiar which may deserve our attention.

§ 2. And First, the ideas they stand for, or if you please the essences of the several species of mixed modes, are made by the understanding; wherein they differ from those of simple ideas.

§ 3. Secondly, They are made arbitrarily, with out patterns, or reference to any real existence, wherein they differ from those of Substances. The mind unites and retains certain collections, as so many diffinct specifick ideas, whilst other combinations that

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AN ABRIDGMENT OF Book II as often in nature occur, and are as plainly fuggelle by outward things, pass neglected without particular names, or specifications.

6 4. The mind in forming those complex idea makes no new idea, but only puts together tho which it had before, wherein it does three thing First, It chuses a certain number. Secondly, It give them connexion, and combines them into one ide Thirdly, It ties them together by a name; all th may be done before any one individual of that specie of Modes ever existed: As the ideas of Sacrilege Adultery might be framed, before either of them wa committed; and we cannot doubt but law-make have often made laws about species of Actions, which were only the creatures of their own understanding. the

§ 5. But though mixed Modes depend on the mind, and are made arbitrarily; yet they are no sthat or made at random, and jumbled together without an end, an reason at all, but are always made for the convenience hele the of communication, which is the chief end of lan guage, and therefore such combinations are on mixed Most made, as men have frequent occasion to mention and for Thus men having joined to the idea of killing th idea of Father and Mother, and so made a distinct species from the killing a man's Son or Neighbour, be made arbi cause of the different heinousness of the crime, an the distinct punishment due to it, found it necessar to mention it by a distinct name, which is the en bunpany of making that distinct combination.

§ 6. In mixed Modes, it is the name that feems ! preserve their Essences, and to give them their lastin duration. 'For the connexion between the loo parts of those complex ideas, being made by th · mind

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mind, this union, which has no particular founda. tion in nature, would cease again, were there not fomething that did, as it were, hold it together, and keep the parts from scattering.' Though herefore the collection of ideas is made by the mind, the name is as it were the Knot which ties them fast gether: Hence we feldom take any other for diinct species of mixed Modes, but such as are set out names. We must observe that the names of mix-Modes always fignify the real Essences of their speis, which being nothing but the abstract complex las, and not referred to the real existence of things; here is no supposition of any thing more signified by by name of a mixed Mode, but barely that complex ha the mind itself has formed: Which when the and has formed, is all it would express by it, and that on which all the properties of the Species deand, and from which alone they flow; and fo in befe the real and nominal Essence is the same.

§ 7. This also shows the reason why the names of fixed Modes are commonly got, before the ideas they and for are perfectly known: Because there being no occies of these ordinarily taken notice of, but such a have names, and those species being complex ideas nade arbitrarily by the mind, it is convenient, if not eccessary, to know the names, before we learn the implex ideas; unless a man will fill his head with a company of abstract complex ideas, which others having no names for, he has nothing to do with, but a lay by, and forget again. In the beginning of inguages it was necessary to have the idea before one we it the name; amd so it is still, where a new implex idea is to be made, and a name given it. In

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simple ideas and substances, I grant it is otherwise; which being such ideas as have real existence and union in nature, the ideas or names are got, one before the other, as it happens.

§ 8. What has been faid here of mixed Modes, is with very little difference applicable to Relations also; which fince every man himself may observe, I may spare myself the pains to enlarge on.

CHAP. VI.

Of the Names of Substances.

§ 1.

The common names of Substances stand for sorts as well as other general terms; that is, for such complex ideas, wherein several particular Substances do, or might agree, by virtue of which they are capable to be comprehended in one common conception, and be signified by one name; I say, do or might agree, for though there be but one Sun, existing, yet the idea of it being abstracted, is as much a sort, as if there were as many suns as there are stars.

S 2. The measure and boundary of each for whereby it is constituted that particular fort, and distinguished from others, is what we call it Essence; which is nothing but that abstract idea to which that name is annexed, so that every thing contained in that idea, is essential to that fort, This I call Nomina Essence, to distinguish it from that real constitution of substances, on which this Nominal Essence, and all the

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the properties of that fort depend, and may be called in real Essence: Thus the nominal Essence of Gold is that complex idea the word Gold stands for, let it be for instance a Body, Yellow, Weighty, Malleable, rasible, and Fixed: But its real Essence is the constitution of its insensible parts, on which those qualities, and all its other properties depend; which is wholly unknown to us.

§ 3. That Essence, in the ordinary use of the word relates to Sorts, appears from hence, that if you take away the abstract ideas by which we fort lidividuals, and rank them under common names, then the thought of any thing effential to any of them instantly vanishes: We have no notion of the one without the other, which plainly shows their Relation. No property is thought effential to any Individual whatfoever, till the mind refers it to some fort or becies of Things, and then presently, according to the abstract idea of that fort, something is found esknial; so that essential or not essential, relates only to our abstract ideas, and the names annexed to them, which amounts to no more but this, that whatever particular thing has not in it those qualities contained in the abstract idea which any general term stands for, cannot be ranked under that species, nor be called by that name; fince that abstract idea is the very Essence of that species. Thus if the idea of Body with some people be bare Extension, or Space, then solidity is not essential to Body: If others make the idea, to which they give the name Body to be Solidity and Extension; then solidity is essential also to Body. That alone therefore is confidered as effential, which makes a part of the complex idea the name of a

Sort stands for, without which no particular thing can be reckoned of that fort, nor be entitled to that name.

Species by their nominal Essence; for it is that alone that the name which is the mark of the Sort signifies. And the species of Things to us are nothing but the ranking them under distinct names, according to the complex idea in Us, and not according to precise, distinct, real Essences in Them.

§ 5. We cannot rank and fort Things by their real Essences, because we know them not : Our facul ties carry us no farther in the knowledge of Sub flances, than a collection of those sensible ideas w observe in them. But the internal Constitution whereon their properties depend, is utterly unknow to us. This is evident when we come to examin but the stones we tread on, or the iron we dail handle: We foon find that we know not their make and can give no reason of the different qualities w find in them; and yet how infinitely these come sho of the fine contrivances and unconceivable real Effect ces of Plants and Animals, every one knows. The workmanship of the All-wife and Powerful God in t great fabrick of the Universe, and every part ther of farther exceeds the comprehension of the mo inquisitive and intelligent man, than the best cont vance of the most ingenious man, doth the conce tions of the most ignorant of rational creatures. vain therefore do we pretend to range things in forts, and dispose them into certain Classes, und names by their real Effences, that are fo far from discovery or comprehension.

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66. But though the nominal Essences of Substanm are made by the mind, they are not yet made for arbitrarily as those of mixed Modes. To the making of any nominal Essence, it is necessary.

First, That the ideas whereof it confists, have fuch an union as to make but one idea, how com-

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Secondly, That the particular ideas fo united be gaetly the same, neither more or less: For if two abiliract complex ideas differ either in number or forts of their component parts, they make two different, nd not one and the fame Essence.

§ 7. In the First of these, the mind in making is complex ideas of Substances, only follows Nature. and puts none together which are not supposed to have an union in nature. For men observing certain qualities always joined and existing together therein copy nature, and of ideas fo united, make their complex ones of Substances.

Secondly, Though the mind in making its complex was of Substances, never puts any together that do not really, or are not supposed to coexist; yet the number it combines depends upon the various care, inufry, or fancy of him that makes it. Men generally content themselves with some few obvious qualities. and often leave out others as material and as firmly mited as those that they take in.

In bodies organized and propagated by Seeds, as regetables and Animals, the Shape is that which to us the leading quality, and most characteristical part that determines the species: In most other bodies not propagated by feed, it is the colour we chiefly fix m, and are most led by. Thus where we find the

colour

colour of Gold, we are apt to imagine all the other qualities comprehended in our complex idea of Gold, to be there also.

§ 8. Though the nominal Essences of Substances are all supposed to be copied from Nature, yet they are all, or most of them, very imperfect: And since the composition of those complex ideas is in several men very different, we may conclude that these boundaries of species are as Men, and not as Nature makes them; if at least there are in Nature any such prefixed bounds.

nade by Nature, that they have an agreement and likeness one with another, and so afford a foundation of being ranked into Sorts: But the forting of things by us, being in order to naming and comprehending them under general terms, I cannot see how it can be properly said, that Nature sets the boundaries of the species of things. But if it be so, our boundaries of species, are not exactly conformable to Nature.

the mind of man, variously collecting the simple ideas, that make the nominal Essence of the lowest species; it is much more evident, that the more comprehensive Classes, called Genera, do so. In forming more general ideas that may comprehend different forts, the mind leaves out those qualities that distinguish them, and puts into its new collection only such ideas as are common to several forts. Thus by leaving out those qualities which are peculiar to Gold, Silver, the and retaining a complex idea, made up of those that are common to each species, there is a new Genus constituted, to which the name Metal is annexed.

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sto. So that in this whole business of General and Species, the Genus or more comprehensive, is but a partial conception of what is in the Species, and the species is but a partial idea of what is to be found in each Individual. In all which there is no new thing made, but only more or less comprehensive signs, whereby we may be enabled to express in a few syllables great numbers of particular things, as they agree in more or less general conceptions, which we have framed to that purpose, If these abstract general ideas be thought to be compleat, it can only be in respect of a certain established relation between them, and certain names, which are made use of to signify them, and not in respect of any thing existing a made by Nature.

which is to be the easiest and shortest way of communicating our notions. This is the proper business of Genus and Species: And this men do without any consideration of real essences, and substantial forms, which come not within the reach of our knowledge, when we think of those things; nor within the signification of our words, when we discourse with others.

§ 12. This is farther to be observed concerning Substances, that they alone of all our several sorts of ideas, have particular or proper names, whereby one only particular thing is signified. Because in simple ideas, modes and relations, it seldom happens that men have occasion to mention often this, or that particular, when it is absent.

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CHAP. VII.

Of Particles.

§ I.

Besides words, which are the names of ideas in the mind, there are others made use of to signify the Connexion that the mind gives to ideas or propositions one with another, and to intimate some particular Action of its own at that time relating to those ideas. This it does several ways; as is, is Not, are marks of the mind affirming or denying: Besides which, the mind does in declaring its sentiments to others connect not only the parts of propositions, but whole sentences one to another with their several relations, and dependences to make a coherent discourse.

it unites in one continued Reasoning or Narration, are called Particles. And it is in the right use of these, that more particularly confists the clearness and beauty of a Good Stile. To express the dependence of his Thoughts and Reasonings, one upon another, a man must have words to show what connexion, restriction, distinction, opposition, emphasis, &c. he gives to each respective part of his discourse.

§ 3. These cannot be understood rightly, without a clear view of the postures, stands, turns, limitations, exceptions, and several other thoughts of the mind: Of these there are a great variety, much exceeding the number of Particles that most langua-

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ges have to express them by; for which reason it happens, that most of these Particles have divers, and sometimes almost opposite significations. particle But in English, has several very different significations; as, But to fay no more: Here it intimates a stop of the mind in the course it was going, before it came to the end of it. I faw but two Planets: Here it shows that the mind limits the sense to what is expressed with a Negation of all other : You pray, but it is not that God would bring you to the true Religion, but that he would confirm you in your own. The former of these intimates a supposition in the mind of fomething otherwise than it should be: The latter shows, that the mind makes a direct opposition between that and what goes before. All Animals have sense, But a Dog is an Animal. Here it signihes the connexion of the latter proposition with the former. To these, divers other significations of this Particle might be added, if it were my business to examine it in its full latitude,

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§ 4. I intend not here a full explication of this fort of Signs, the instances I have given in this one, may give occasion to reflect on their use and force in language, and lead us into the contemplation of several actions of our minds in discoursing, which it has sound a way to intimate to others by these Particles, some whereof constantly, and others in certain constructions, have the sense of a whole sentence contained in them.

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CHAP. VIII.

Of abstract and concrete Terms.

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The Mind, as has been shown, has a power abstract its idea, whereby the Sorts of Thing are distinguished: Now each abstract idea being defined, so that the one can never be the other, the mind will, by its intuitive knowledge perceive the difference; and therefore in propositions, no two whole ideas can ever be affirmed one of another Nor does the common use of language permit the any two abstract words or names of abstract ideas should be affirmed one of another. All our affirmations are only in Concrete, which is the affirming of abstract idea to be joined to another: Which abstract ideas in Substances, may be of any fort, though the most of them are of Powers: In all the rest the are little else but Relations.

Solutions, as Whiteness White, Sweetness Sweetness Sweetness as Whiteness White, Sweetness Sweetness Sweetness as Relations, as Justice Just, Equality Equal, &c. It as to our ideas of Substances, we have very sew a stract names at all. Those few that the schools has forged, as Animalitas, Humanitas, &c. hold no proportion with the infinite number of names of stances, and could never get admittance into commuse, or obtain the license of publick approbation which seems to intimate the confession of all manking

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that they have no ideas of the real Essences of Sublances, since they have not names for such ideas. It was only the doctrine of substantial Forms, and the massing of missaken Pretenders to a Knowledge they had not, which sirst coined, and then introduced laimalitas, Humanitas, and the like: Which yet went very little farther than their own schools, and male news.

CHAP. IX.

Of the Impersection of Words.

§ 1.

To examine the Perfection or Imperfection of Words, it is necessary to consider their use and ad, which is twofold; First, to record our own shoughts: Secondly, to communicate our thoughts to others: The First is for the help of our own memotics, whereby we do, as it were, talk to ourselves: for this purpose any Words may serve the turn: Words being arbitrary signs, we may use which we please for this purpose; and there will be no Imperfession in them, if we constantly use the same sign for the same idea.

§ 2. Secondly. As to Communication by Words; that to has a double use: First, Their Civil Use, which such a Communication of thoughts and ideas by Words, as may serve in common Conversation and Commerce, about the ordinary Affairs and Conveniaties of Civil Lite. Secondly, The philosophical use

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of Words, by which I mean such an use of then as may ferve to convey the precise notions of things and to express certain Truths in general Proposition these two uses are very distinct, and a great deal le exactness will serve in the one, than in the other.

\$ 3. The end of Language in Communication to be understood; that is, to excite by sounds in the bearer, the fame idea which they stand for in the mind of the speaker The doubtfulness and uncertain ty of their signification, which is the imperfection w are here speaking of, has its cause more in the idea themselves, than in any incapacity in the founds to fignify them; for in that regard they are all equall That then which makes the difference, is the difference of ideas they stand for, which must be learne and retained by those, who would discourse together intelligibly. Now this is difficult in these cases;

§ 4. First, Where the ideas they stand for are ver complex. Hence the names of mixed Modes are l able to great uncertainty and obscurity in their signi fication. For here the idea being made up of man parts, it is not easy to form and retain it exactly of this fort chiefly are moral words, which have le dom in two different men, the same precise significa tion.

§ 5. Secondly, Where the ideas they stand for have no certain connexion in nature, and therefore settled standard to rectify and adjust them by. Th again is the case of the names of mixed Modes, which are assemblages of ideas put together at pleasur Common use indeed regulates the meaning of Words pre ty well for common conversation: But it is not suff cient to adjust them to philosophical discourses, the bein

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bing scarce a name of any very complex idea, which a common use has not a great latitude; and is not made the sign of far different ideas.

66. The way of learning these names does not a little contribute to the doubtfulness of their signification. for we may observe that children are taught the sames of simple ideas, and substances, by having the things shown them; and then they repeat the name hat flands for it; as White, Sweet, Milk, Sugar, &c. But in mixed Modes the founds are learned first, and men are to learn afterwards their fignification, by heir own observation and industry, or the explicatim of others: Which is the reason that these words re little more than bare founds in the minds of most, because few are at the paids to settle their ideas and potions precifely; and those which are, make them the figns of ideas, different from what others understand by them, which is the occasion of most disputes.

In this is the case of the names of substances, which being supposed to stand for their real Esences, must being supposed to stand for their real Esences, must be to see a see utterly unknown; and it will be impossible to know what is, or what is not Antimony, as when that word is to stand for the real Essence of it; whereof we have no idea at all.

§ 8. Or suppose these names only stand for simple ideas, sound to coexist in substances, yet thus they will be liable to great uncertainty too: Because these imple ideas being very numerous, men frame differ-

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ent ideas of the fame subjects, by putting differe ideas into their complex one, of such substances so veral men observe several properties in the same substance, and none of them all; who having but in perfect descriptions of things, can have but uncertaingnifications of words.

§ 9. Fourthly. Where the figuification of the word and the real Essence of the thing, are not the same which is still the case of substances, from hence we

may observe.

S 10. First. That the names of simple ideas at least liable to mistakes: First, Because the ideas the stand for, being each but one single perception, at easier got, and more clearly retained, than the more complex ones of Substances and Mixed Modes. So condly, Because they are not referred to any othe Essence, but barely that perception they immediatel signify.

§ 11. Secondly, Names of simple Modes are nex to simple ideas least liable to doubt or uncertainty, especially those of Figure and Number, of which me

have to clear and diffinct ideas.

§ 12. Thirdly, In mixed Modes, when they are composed of a few and obvious ideas, their name are clear and distinct enough; otherwise doubtful an uncertain.

S 13 Fourthly, The names of fubstances being annexed to ideas, that are neither the real Essences nor exact Representations of things, are liable yet to greater Impersection, when we come to a philosophical use of them.

CHAP

-C H A P. X. -

Of the Abuse of Words.

§ 1.

BESIDE the natural and unavoidable Imperfections of Languages, there are wilful Faults and Nepells, which men are often guilty of in their use of words. For,

1 2. First, They use words without clear and distinct leas, or, which is worle, figns without any thing ignified; fuch are for the most part introduced by the of Philosophy and Religion, either out of an afstation of fingularity, or to support some strange hinion; or to cover the weakness of their Hypothesis. These are commonly such as had no determinate colstion of ideas annexed to them, when they were iff invented; or at least such, as, if well examined, be found inconfistent, and therefore may justly e called infignificant terms: Instances of this kind my easily be had from the school men and metaphytians. Others learn words which the propriety of aguage has affixed to very important ideas, and ten upon occasion use them without any distinct leaning at all: Whence their notions being uniteady onfused, their discourse must be filled with emplaters where the words stand for arbitrary, and nufrons collections of ideas, not regularly and perunently united in Nature.

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§ 3. Secondly, Another Abuse is Inconstancy in the use of Words: It is hard to find a discourse on an fubject wherein the same words are not used some times for one collection of ideas, sometimes for ano ther. The wilful doing whereof can be imputed to nothing but great folly, or greater dishonesty: And man in his accounts with another, may with as much fairness make the characters of numbers, stand some times for one, and fometimes for another collection o Units; as in his discourse, or reasoning, make the same words stand for different collections of simple ideas,

§ 4. Thirdly, Another is an affected obscurity ei ther by using old words in new fignifications, or by introducing new and ambiguous terms, without de fining them; or putting them together, fo as to con found their ordinary meaning. Though the Perita tetick philosophy has been most eminent in this way vet other fects have not been wholly clear of it The admired art of disputing hath added much to the natural imperfection of Languages, whilst it has been made use of, and fitted to perplex the signification of words, more than to discover the Knowledge and Truth of things: And he that will look into that fort of learned writings, will find the word there much more obscure, uncertain, and undeter mined in their meaning, than they are in ordinar Conversation.

§ 5. Fourthly, Another is the taking words for things: This, though it in some degree concerns a names in general; yet more particularly affects those of Substances. Thus in the Peripatetick philosopy Substantial Forms, Abborrence of Vacuum. &c an taken for fomething real. To this Abuse those met

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me most subject, who confine their thoughts to any me fystem; and give themselves up into a firm belef of the perfection of any received Hypothefis; whereby they come to be perfuaded, that the terms of that feet, are so fuited to the nature of things, that hey perfectly correspond with the real existence.

66. Fifthly, Another is the fetting them in the slace of things which they can by no means signify. We may observe that in the general names of Subfances, whereof the nominal Effences are only known nos, when we affirm or deny any thing about them. we do most commonly tacitly suppose or intend they hould stand for the real Essence of a certain fort of Substances. Thus when a man says Gold is malleable; he would infinuate something more than this, what I all Gold is malleable, (though truly it amounts to no more) namely, that what has the real Essence of Gold is malleable, that is, that malleableness depends on, and indeparable from the real Essence of Gold. But a han not knowing wherein that real Essence consists, the connexion in his mind of malleableness, is not troly with an Essence he knows not, but with the found Gold he puts for it. It is true, the names of Substances would be much more useful; and Propofions exprest by them much more certain, were the ted Effences of Substances the ideas in our minds, which those words fignified. And it is for want of hole real Essences that our words convey so little howledge, or certainty in our discourses about them. But to suppose these names to stand for a thing, haby the real Essence on which the properties depend, to tar from diminishing the impertection of our words, that by a plain abuse it adds to it; when we would

would make them stand for fomething, which not b ing in our complex ideas, the name we use can a way be the fign of it. In mixed Modes, any ide of the complex one being left out, or changed, it allowed to be another thing, that is, to be of and ther species, as is plain in Chance medley, Man Saughte Murder, &c. because the complex idea signified b that name, is the real as well as nominal Effence and there is no fecret reference of that name to an other, Essence, but that But in Substances it is no fo; for though in that called Gold, one puts in hi complex idea, what another leaves out, and vice verfa set men do not usually think the species changed, be cause they reter the name in their minds to a rea immutable Effence of a thing existing, on which thos properties depend: But this reference of the nam to a thing we have not the idea of, is fo far from helping us at all, that it only terves the more to in volve us in difficulties. This reference is grounded on this supposition, namely, that the same precise internal constitution goes always with the same spe cifick name: In which are contained these two fall Suppositions.

First. There are certain precise Essences, according to which, Nature makes all particular things; and by which they are distinguished into species.

Secondly, This tacitly infinuates as if we had ideal of these Essences; for why do we enquire, whether this or that thing have the real Essence of that species man for instance, if we did not suppose it known which yet is utterly false; and therefore such applications of names as would make them stand for ideal we have not, must need cause great disorder in difficults.

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perse and reasonings about them; and be a great convenience in our communication by words.

17. Sixthly, Another more general, though less Merved, abuse of words, is, that men having by long d familiar use, annexed to them certain ideas, they napt to imagine so near and necessary a connexion, tween the names, and the fignifications they use them that they forwardly suppose one cannot but underand what their meaning is; as if it were past doubt, in the use of these common received sounds, the taker and hearer had necessarily the same precise has. And so likewise taking the words of others, naturally standing for just, what they themselves he been accustomed to apply them to, they never bouble themselves to explain their own, or underand another's meaning : From whence commonly occeds noise, and wrangling without improvement rinformation; whilft men take words to be the unstant regular marks of agreed notions, which in with are no more but the voluntary and unfleady of their own ideas. Thus life, is a term, none fore familiar: Any one almost would take it for an fiont, to be asked what he meant by it, and yet if comes in question, whether such a thing has life, not, it is easy to perceive, that a clear distinct littled idea, does not always accompany the use of to hown a word.

\$ 8. Seventhly, Figurative Speech is also an abuse I Language: For though in discourses, where we kee rather pleasure and delight, than information and approvement, such ornaments as are borrowed from mustive speeches and allusions, can scarce pass for hits; yet if we would speak of things as they are,

we must allow, that all the art of rhetorick, beside order and clearness, all the artificial and figurative a plication of words eloquence hath invented, are substituted in the passions, and thereby missed the judgment, and indeed are perfect cheat. And therefore, however allowable they may be in harangues and popular a dresses; they are certainly in all discourses that pretend to inform and instruct, wholly to be avoided and where truth and knowledge are concerned, cannot but be thought a great fault, either of the language or person that makes use of them.

§ 9. To conclude this confideration, the ends language in our discourse with others, are chiefly the three.

First, To make our thoughts or ideas known to an ther: this we fail in: 1st, When we use names without clear and distinct ideas in our minds. 2d. When we apply received names to ideas, to white common use of that language does not appethem. 3dly, When we apply them unsteadily, making them stand now for one, and by and by for another idea.

s no. Secondly, To make known our thoughts with as much ease and quickness as is possible. This men to in when they have complex ideas, without having ditinct names for them, which may happen either through the detect of a language, which has none, or to fault of that man who has not yet learned them.

S 11. Thirdly, To convey the knowledge of things.

This cannot be done, but when our ideas agree the reality of things.

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mis meaning in his words, and speaks only empty mods. Secondly. He that hath complex ideas, withmames for them, wants dispatch in his expression. Thirdly, He that uses his words loosely and uneadily, will either not be minded, or not undersood. Fourthly, He that applies his names to ideas, sterent from their common use, wants propriety in its language, and speaks gibberish. Fifthly. And he is hath ideas of substances, disagreeing with the real sustence of things so far wants the materials of true nowledge in his understanding, and has instead treof, chimeras.

In convey their discoveries, reasonings, and knowtige from one to another; he that makes an ill use
tit, though he does not corrupt the fountains of
mowledge which are in things themselves, yet he does
much as in him lies, break or stop the pipes wherewit is distributed to the publick use and advantage
mankind. He that uses words without any clear
if steady meaning, what does he but lead himself
the others into errors? And he that designedly does
lought to be looked on as an enemy to truth and
mowledge.

It. If we look into books of controversy of wind, we shall see that the effect of obscure, unday, and equivocal terms, is nothing but noise and mangling about sounds, without convincing or betting a man's understanding. For if the idea be not seed on between speaker and hearer, for which the winds stand, the argument is not about things but mes.

AN ABRIDGMENT OF Book I

S 15. It deferves to be considered, and carefull examined, whether the greatest part of the dispute in the world, are not merely verbal, and about the signification of words; and that if the terms they are made in were defined and reduced in their significations, to the single ideas they stand for, those dispute would not end of themselves, and immediately vanish

CHAP. XI.

Of the Remedies of the foregoing Imperfections an Abuses.

To remedy the defects of speech above-mentioned the following rules may be of use.

First, A man should take care to use no word with out a signification, no name without an idea for which he makes it stand. This rule will not seem needled to any one, who will take the pains to recollect how often he has met with such words, as Instinct, Sympathy, Antipathy, &c. so made use of, as he might easily conclude, that those that used them had not deas in their minds to which they applied them.

fould be clear and distinct, which in complex ideas in by knowing the particular ones that make that composition; of which, if any one be again complex we must know also the precise collection that is united in each, and so till we come to simple ones. It Substances, the ideas must not only be distinct, but all conformable to things as they exist.

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§ 6.

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§ 7. If of fubstance bowing are made use

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my be, to fuch ideas, as common use has annexed them to: For words, especially of languages already famed, are no man's private possession, but the common measure of commerce and communication; and therefore it is not for any one to change the stamp they are current in, nor alter the ideas they are affect to; or, at least, when there is a necessity to do so, he is bound to give notice of it. And therefore,

§ 4. Fourthly, When common use has lest the spission of a word uncertain and loose, or where it is to be used in a peculiar sense; or where the term is stable to any doubtfulness or mistake, there it ought

who defined, and its fignification afcertained.

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§ 5. Words standing for simple ideas being not befinable, their signification must be shown either, first, By a synonymous word. Secondly, By naming a subject, wherein that simple idea is to be found. Thirdly, By presenting to the senses that subject, which may produce it in the mind, and make him actually we the idea that word stands for.

§ 6. Mixed Modes may be perfectly defined, by exally enumerating those ideas that go to each compolion. This ought more especially to be done in mixed Modes belonging to Morality: Since definition is the only way whereby the precise meaning of monal Words can be known: And yet a way whereby their precise meaning may be known certainly, and without leaving any room for any contest about it.

§ 7. For the explaining the signification of the names of substances, both the fore mentioned ways, viz. of bring and defining, are requisite in many cases to be made use of; their names are best defined by their lading Qualities, which are mostly shape in animals

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and vegetables; and colour in inanimate bodies; and in some, both together. Now these leading Quaties are best made known by showing, and can hare by the made known otherwise. The shape of a Horor Cassowary will be but imperfectly imprinted on the mind by words: The sight of the animals doth much better. And the idea of the particular colour of Gold is not to be got by any description of i but only by the frequent exercise of the eyes about. The like may be said of those other simple idea peculiar in their kind to any substance, for which precise ideas there are no peculiar names.

But because many of the simple ideas which male up our specifick ideas of substances, are powers which lie not obvious to our sense in the things, as they of dinarily appear; therefore in the signification of our names of Substances, some part of the signification we be better made known, by enumerating those simple deas, than in showing the substance itself. For he the to the Yellow shining colour of Gold, got by sight, the from my enumerating them have the ideas of gree Ductibility, Fusibility, Fixedness, and Solubility in Aquality, Regia, will have a perfecter idea of Gold, than he can have by seeing a piece of Gold, and thereby imprining in his mind only its obvious qualities.

§ 8. It were to be wished that words standing standings, which are known and distinguished by the outward shapes, should be expressed by little draugh and prints made of them. A Vocabulary made aft this fashion, would perhaps with more ease, and less time, teach the true signification of many term especially in languages of remote countries, or ages and settle trucr ideas in mens minds of several thin

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the large and laborious comments of learned criks. Naturalists that treat of Plants and Animals,
we found the benefit of this way: And he that
mosults them will find that he has a clearer idea of
thism and lbex from a little print of that herb or
heaft, than he could have from a long definition of
the names of either of them; and so no doubt he
would have of Strigil and Sistrum, if instead of a Cury-comb or Cymbal, which are the English names dictonaries render them by, he could see stamped in the
hargin small pictures of these instruments, as they
were in use amongst the ancients.

hat in all discourses wherein one man pretends to alrust or convince another, he should use the same and constantly in the same sense; if this were done which no body can resuse, without great disingenuity) many of the books extant might be spared; many of the controversies in dispute, would be at an ind; several of those great volumes swollen with amiguous words, now used in one sense, and by and in another, would shrink into a very narrow commis: And many of the Philosophers, (to mention no other) as well as Poets works, might be contained in Nut shell.

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BOOK

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BOOK IV.

CHAP. I.

Of Knowledge in General.

§ 1 ..

CINCE the mind in all its thoughts and reasoning has no other immediate object but its own ideas which alone it does or can contemplate; it is eviden that our knowledge is only converfant about them Knowledge then feems to be nothing but the percepti on of the connexion and agreement, or disagreement an repugnancy of any of our ideas: Where this percept on is, there is knowledge; and where it is not, there though we fancy, guefs, or believe, yet we alway come short of Knowledge. When we know that White is not Black, what do we but perceive that the two ideas do not agree? Or that the three angles of a Triangle, are equal to two right ones; what do w more but perceive that equality to two right ones does necessarily agree to, and is inseparable from th three angles of a Triangle! But to understand a lit tle more distinctly, wherein this agreement or di agreement consists, we may reduce it to all thes four forts; First, Identity or Diversity: Secondly, Re lation; Thirdly, Coexistence; Fourthly, Real Existence

of the mind, to perceive its ideas; and fo far as it perceives them, to know each what it is, and there by to perceive their difference, that is, the one no

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the the other: By this the mind clearly perceives white idea to agree with itself, and to be what it is; and all distinct ideas to disagree. This it does without any pains or deduction, by its natural power of acception and distinction. This is what men of art are reduced to those general rules, viz. What is, is. and it is impossible for the same thing to be, and not to be. But no maxim can make a man know it clearer, at Round is not Square, than the bare perception of the two ideas, which the mind at first sight pertives to disagree.

greenent the mind perceives in any of its ideas, may called Relative, and is nothing but the perception the Relation, between any two ideas of what kind ever; that is, their agreement or disagreement one with another in several ways the mind takes of comming them.

4. 3dly, The third fort of agreement or disagreement to be found in our ideas, is Coexistence, or Non-missence in the same subject; and this belongs parmalarly to Substances. Thus when we pronounce meerning Gold, that it is fixed, it amounts to no more at this, that sixedness, or a power to remain in the in unconsumed, is an idea that always accompanies at particular sort of Tellowness, Weight, Fusibility, it which make our complex idea, signified by the ord Gold.

Existence agreeing to any idea. Within these or lorts or agreement or disagreement, I suppose is mained all the knowledge we have, or are capable. For all that we know or can affirm concerning

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any ide a, is, that it is, or is not the same with son other: As that Blue is not Yellow. That it does, does not coexist with another in the same subject As that Iron is susceptible of Magnetical Impression. That it has that or this Relation to some other idea As that two Triangles upon equal bases between the parallels are equal; or that it has a real Existen without the mind: As that God is.

So. There are several ways wherein the mind possessed of truth, each of which is called Knowledge, First, There is actual Knowledge, when the mind has a present view of the agreement or disagrement of any of its ideas, or of the Relation the have one with another. Secondly, A man is said know any proposition, when having once eviden perceived the agreement or disagreement of the idea whereof it consists, and so lodged it in his memoration that whenever it comes to be reflected on again, mind assents to it without doubt or hesitation, and certain of the truth of it. And this may be called babitual Knowledge: And thus a man may be said know all those truths which are lodged in his memory, by a foregoing clear, and full perception.

The one is of fuch truths laid up in the memory, whenever they occur to the mind, it actually percetthe Relation that is between those ideas. And the in all those truths, where the ideas themselves, by immediate view, discover their agreement or dilagment one with another. The other is of such truthereof the mind having been convinced, it retains memory of the conviction, without the proofs. I a man that remembers certainly, that he once

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mired the demonstration, that the three angles of Triangle are equal to two right ones, knows it to be true, when that demonstration is gone out of his mind, and possibly cannot be recollected: But he mows it in a different way from what he did before; namely, not by the intervention of those intermediate ideas, whereby the agreement or disagreement of those in the proposition was at first perceived; but by remembering, i. e. knowing that he was once certain of the truth of this proposition, that the three angles of a Triangle are equal to two right ones. immutability of the fame Relations between the fame inmutable things, is now the idea that shows him, that if the three angles of a Triangle were once equal to two right ones, they will always be fo. And hence he comes to be certain, that what was once true, is always true; what ideas once agreed, will always agree; and consequently, what he once knew to be true, he will always know to be true, as long as he can remember that he once knew it.

CHAP. II.

Of the Degrees of our Knowledge.

6 1.

A LL our Knowledge consisting in the view the mind has of its own ideas, which is the utmost light, and greatest certainty we are capable of: The different clearness of our Knowledge, teems to lie in the different way of perception the mind has of the agreement or disagreement of any of its ideas.

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§ 2. When the mind perceives this agreement or disagreement of two ideas immediately by themselves, without the intervention of any other; we may call it intuitive Knowledge, in which cases the mind perceives truth, as the eye does light, only by being directed towards it. Thus the mind perceives that White is not Black, that Three are more than two, and equal to One and Two. This part of Knowledge is irrefiftible, and like the bright fun-shine, forces itself immediately to be perceived as foon as ever the mind turns its view that way. It is on this intuition, that depends all the certainty and evidence of our other Knowledge; which certainty every one finds to be fo great, that he cannot imagine, and therefore not require a greater.

§ 3. The next degree of Knowledge is, where the mind perceives not this agreement or difagreement immediately, or by the Juxta position as it were of the ideas, because those ideas concerning whose agreement or disagreement the enquiry is made, cannot by the mind be fo put together, as to show it. In this cafe the mind is fain to discover the agreement or disagreement which it fearches, by the intervention of other ideas: And this is that which we call Reasoning: And thus, if we would know the agreement or disagreement in bigness, between the three angles of a Triangle, and two right Angles; we cannot by an immediate view, and comparing them, do it; because the three angles of a Triangle cannot be brought at once, and be compared with any other one, or two angles. And fo of this, the mind has no immediate or intuitive Knowledge. But we must find out some other Angles, to which the three angles of a Triangle have

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have equality, and finding those equal to two right ones, we come to know the equality of these three Angles to two right ones. Those intervening ideas, which serve to show the agreement of any two others, are called *Proofs*. And where the agreement or disagreement is by this means plainly and clearly perceived, it is called *Demonstration*. A quickness in the mind to find those Proofs, and to apply them right, is, I suppose, that which is called *Sagacity*.

§ 4. This Knowledge, though it be certain, is not to clear and evident as intuitive Knowledge. It requires pains and attention, and steady application of mind, to discover the agreement or disagreement of the ideas it considers, and there must be a progression by steps and degrees, before the mind can in this way arrive at certainty. Before Demonstration there was a doubt, which in intuitive Knowledge cannot happen to the mind, that has its faculty of Perception left to a degree capable of distinct ideas, no more than it can be a doubt to the Eye (that can distinctly see White and Black) whether this Ink and Paper be all of a Colour.

S 5. Now in every step that Reason makes in deminstrative Knowledge, there is an intuitive Knowledge of that agreement or disagreement it seeks with the next intermediate idea, which it uses as a Proof; for if it were not so, that yet would need a Proof; since, without the Perception of such agreement or disagreement, there is no Knowledge produced. By which, it is evident, that every step in Reasoning, that produces Knowledge, has intuitive Gertainty; which when the mind perceives, there is no more required but to remember it, to make the agreement or dis-

agreement

agreement of the ideas concerning which we enquire visible and certain. This intuitive Perception of the agreement or disagreement of the intermediate ideas is each step and progression of the Demonstration, must also be exactly carried in the mind; and a man must be sure that no part is left out; which because it long deductions, the memory cannot easily retain this Knowledge becomes more imperfect than intuitive; and men often embrace Falsehoods, for Demonstrations.

§ 6. It has been generally taken for granted, that Mathematicks alone are capable of demonstrative Cer tainty. But to have fuch an agreement or disagree ment as may be intuitively perceived, being as I ima gine not the privilege of the ideas of Number, Ex tension and Figure alone; it may possibly be the wan of due method and application in us, and not of ful ficient evidence in things, that Demonstration has been thought to have so little to do in other parts of Knowledge. For in whatever ideas the mind can perceive the agreement or disagreement immediately there it is capable of intuitive Knowledge: And where it can perceive the agreement or disagreement of any two ideas, by an intuitive Perception of the agree ment or disagreement they have with any intermediate ideas, there the mind is capable of Demonstration, which is not limited to the ideas of Figure, Num ber, Extension, or their Modes. The reason why it has been generally supposed to belong to them on ly, is because in comparing their Equality or Excess the Modes of Numbers have every the least difference very clear and perceiveable: And in Extension, though every the least Excess is not so perceptible, yet the mine

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ideas of of Colo lities. had has found out ways to discover the just Equaby of two Angles, Extensions, or Figures; and both, that is, Numbers and Figures, can be set down by hister and lasting marks.

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6 7. But in other simple ideas, whose Modes and Differences are made and counted by Degrees, and not Quantity, we have not fo nice and accurate a illinction of their Differences, as to perceive or find ways to measure their just Equality, or the least Diffrences. For those other simple ideas being Appearnces or Scnsations produced in us, by the Size, Figure, Motion, &c. of minute Corpuscles fingly inmible; their different Degrees also depend on the wiation of some, or all of those causes; which since cannot be observed by us in Particles of Matter, whereof each is too fubtile to be perceived, it is impossible for us to have any exact measures of the diftrent degrees of these simple ideas. Thus, for infance, not knowing what number of Particles, nor that Motion of them is fit to produce any precise agree of Whiteness; we cannot demonstrate the certin equality of any two degrees of Whiteness, because we have no certain standard to measure them by, nor means to distinguish every the least difference: The mly help we have being from our fenses, which in his point fail us.

§ 8. But where the difference is so great as to moduce in the mind ideas clearly distinct; there ideas of Colours, as we see in different kinds, Blue and Red sor instance) are as capable of Demonstration, as ideas of Number and Extension. What is here said of Colours, I think, holds true in all secondary Qualies. These two then, Intuition and Demonstration,

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are the degrees of our Knowledge: Whatever come short of one of these, is but Faith or Opinion, no Knowledge, at least in all general Truths.

§ 9. There is indeed another Perception of the mind employed about the particular Existence of finite Beings, without us, which going beyond Probability but not reaching to either of the foregoing degree of Certainty, passes under the name of Knowledge Nothing can be more certain, than that the idea w receive from an external Object is in our minds This is intuitive Knowledge; but whether we can thence certainly infer the Existence of any thing with out us, corresponding to that idea, is that whereo fome men think there may be a question made, because men may have such an idea in their minds, when no fuch thing exists, no such Object affects their fenses. But it is evident that we are invincibly conscious to ourselves of a different Perception, when we look upon the Sun in the day, and think on it by night; when we actually tafte Wormwood, or smell Rose, or only think on that Savour or Odour: So that I think we may add to the two former forts of Know ledge, this also of the Existence of particular exter nal Objects, by that Perception and Confciousness w have, of the actual entrance of ideas from them and allow these three degrees of Knowledge, viz intuitive, demonstrative, and sensative.

and employed about our ideas only; will it follow thence that it must be conformable to our ideas, and that where our ideas are clear and distinct, obscur and confused, there our Knowledge will be so too?

answer, No: For our Knowledge consisting in the

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proception of the agreement or disagreement of any mo ideas ; its clearness or obscurity consists in the darnels or obscurity of that Perception, and not in he clearness or obscurity of the ideas themselves. A (for instance) that has a clear idea of the angles of a Triangle, and of Equality to two right ones, may yet have but an obscure Perception of their agreenent; and so have but a very obscure Knowledge fit. But obscure and confused ideas can never prohice any clear or distinct Knowledge; because, as he as any ideas are obscure or confused, so far the mind can never perceive clearly, whether they agree w disagree: Or, to express the same thing in a way Is apt to be misunderstood; he that hath not determined ideas to the words he uses, cannot make propositions of them, of whose truth he can be certain.

CHAP. III.

Of the Extent of Human Knowledge.

6 I.

Rom what has been faid concerning Knowledge, it follows, First, That we can have no Knowledge farther than we have ideas.

§ 2. Secondly, That we have no Knowledge farther than we can have Perception of that agreement or disagreement of our ideas, either by Intuition, Detomstration, or Sensation.

§ 3. Thirdly, We cannot have an intuitive Knowledge that shall extend itself to all our ideas, and all that we would know about them; because we can-

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not examine and perceive all the relations they have one to another, by Juxta position, or an immedia Comparison one with another. Thus we cannot in tuitively perceive the equality of two Extensions, the difference of whose figures makes their parts uncapable of an exact immediate application.

§ 4. Fourthly, Our rational Knowledge cannot reach to the whole extent of our ideas; because between two different ideas we would examine, we can not always find such Proofs as we can connect one another, with an intuitive Knowledge in all the part of the Deduction.

§ 5. Fifthly, Sensative Knowledge reaching a farther than the Existence of things actually present to our senses, is yet much narrower than either of the former.

of our Knowledge, comes not only short of the reality of Things, but even of the extent of our ow ideas. We have the ideas of a Square, a Circle an Equality, and yet perhaps shall never be able to fin a Circle equal to a Square.

§ 7. 'We have the ideas of matter and thinking

but possibly shall never be able to know, whether

any mere material being thinks or no; it being in

of possible for us, by the contemplation of our ow

ideas, without revelation, to discover, whether Ou

inipotency has not given to some systems of matter

fitly disposed, a power to perceive and think, or el

joined to matter fo disposed, a thinking immateri

Substance: It being not much more remote fro

our comprehension to conceive, that God can,

he pleases, superadd to matter a faculty of thin

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fing, than that he should superadd to it another subfince, with a faculty of thinking; since we know not wherein thinking consists, nor to what fort of substances the Almighty has been pleased to give that power, which cannot be in any created being, but merely by the good pleasure and bounty of the Creator.

§ 8. 'I fay not this, that I may any way leffen the belief of the foul's immateriality: I am not here speaking of probability, but knowledge; and I think that it is of use to us, to discern how far our knowledge does reach; for the state that we are at present in, not being that of vision, we must, in many things, content ourselves with faith and probability: And in the present question, about the immateriality of the foul, if our faculties cannot arrive at demonstrative certainty, we need not think it strange. All the great ends of morality and religion, are well enough fecured, without philosophical proofs of the foul's immateriality, fince it is evident, that he who made us sensible intelligent beings, can, and will restore us to the like state of fensibility in another world, and make us capable there to receive the retribution he has defigned to men, according to their doings in this life. And therefore it is not of fuch mighty necessity to determine one way or the other, as some over zealous for, or against the immateriality of the foul, have been forward to make the world believe. § 9. The affirmations or Negations we make conkning the ideas we have, being reduced to the four his above mentioned, viz. Identity, Goexistence, Re-

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lation, and real Existence; I shall examine how fa our Knowledge extends in each of these.

First, As to Identity and Diversity, our intuitiv Knowledge is as far extended as our ideas themselves and there can be no idea in the mind, which it does not prefently, by an intuitive Knowledge, perceive to be what it is, and to be different from any other.

\$ 10. Secondly, As to the greement or difagree ment of our ideas in Coexistence . In this our Know ledge is very thort, though in this confifts the great est and most material part of our Knowledge, con cerning Substances: For our iceas of Substances, be ing, as I have shown, nothing but certain Collection of simple ideas, coexisting in one subject, (our idea o Flame, for instance, is a Body hot, luminous, and moving upward.) When we would know any thing farther concerning this or any other fort of Substance what do we but enquire what other qualities of powers these. Substances have or have not? which is nothing elfe but to know what other fimple ideas do, or do not coexist with those that make up that complex idea. The reason of this is, because the simple ideas which make up our complex ideas of Subfances, have no visible necessary connexion or inconsistence with other simple ideas, whose Coexistence with them we would inform ourfelves about. These ideas being likewise, for the most part, secondary Qualities which depend upon the primary Qualities of their minute or infenfible parts, or on fomething yet more remote from our comprehension; it is impossible we should know which have a necessary Union, or Inconsistency one with another, fince we know not the Root from whence they fpring, or the Size, -Figure, and Texture

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Texture of Parts on which they depend, and from which they refult.

§ 11. Besides this, there is no discoverable Conexion between any secondary Quality, and those priary Qualities that it depends on. We are fo far from knowing what Figure, Size, or Motion produes (for instance) a yellow Colour, or fweet Tafte, or fbarp Sound, that we can by no means conceive how my Size, Figure, or Motion can possibly produce in s the idea of any Colour, Tafte, or Sound, whatfoever; nd there is no conceivable Connexion between the me and the other.

§ 12. Our knowledge therefore of Coexistence faches little farther than Experience. Some few indeed of the primary Qualities have a necessary Deendence, and visible Connexion one with another: s Figure necessarily supposes Extension, receiving or mmunicating Motion by Impulse, supposes Solidity. But Qualities coexistent in any subject, without this Dependence and Connexion, cannot certainly be known occexist any farther, than experience by our senses Thus, though upon trial we find Gold nforms us. fellow, Weighty, Malleable, Fusible and Fixed, yet ecause none of these have any evident Dependence. necessary connexion with the other; we cannot trainly know, that where any four of these are, the th will be there also, how highly probable soever is ay be: But the highest degree of Probability, aounts not to Certainty; without which there can be true Knowledge: For this Coexistence can be no other known, that it is perceived; and it cannot perceived, but either in particular subjects, by the 0.3 oblervation

observation of our senses; or in general, by the ne cessary Connexion of the ideas themselves.

existence, we may know that any subject can have of each fort of primary Qualities, but one particular a once. One Extension, one Figure; and so of sensibilities peculiar to each sense: For whatever of each kind is present in any subject, excludes all other of that sort: For instance, one subject cannot have tu Smells, or two Colours at the same time.

6 14. As to Powers of Substances, which make a great part of our enquiries about them, and is n inconfiderable branch of our Knowledge: Our Know ledge as to these reaches little farther than Experience because they consist in a Texture and Motion of part which we cannot by any means come to discover and I doubt whether with those Faculties we have, w shall ever be able to carry our general Knowledge much farther in this part. Experience is that white in this part we must depend on; and it were to wished that it were more improved: We find the a vantages some mens generous pains, have this wa brought to the stock of natural Knowledge. And others, especially the Philosophers by fire who preter to it, had been fo wary in their Observations, at fincere in their Reports, as those who call themselv Philosophers ought to have been : Our acquaintan with the Bodies here about us, and our infight i to their powers and operations had been yet mu

agreement of our ideas in any other Relation: The largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge, and it is hard determined to the largest field of Knowledge field to the largest field of Knowledge field to the largest field to the

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determine how far it may extend. This part denending on our fagacity in finding intermediate ideas. that may show the Habitudes and Relations of ideas: is an hard matter to tell when we were at an end of fuch discoveries. They that are ignorant of Algeha cannot imagine the wonders in this kind that are p be done by it : And what farther improvements and helps, advantageous to other parts of Knowledge. the fagacious mind of man may yet find out, it is not ealy to determine. This at least I believe, that the ideas of Quantity, are not those alone that are apable of Demonstration and Knowledge: And that other, perhaps more useful parts of Contemplation, would afford us Certainty, if Vices, Passions, and domineering interest did not oppose or menace endeayours of this kind.

\$ 16. The idea of a Supreme Being, infinite in Power, Goodness, and Wildom, whose Workmanship we are, and on whom we depend; and the idea of surfelves, as understanding rational Creatures, would, I suppose, if duly considered, afford such Foundations of our Duty, and Rules of Action, as might place Morality among the Sciences capable of Demonfration: Wherein I doubt not but from principles as incontestible as those of the Mathematicks, by nerestary consequences, the measure of Right and Wrong might be made out, to any one that will apply himself with the same indifferency and attention to the one, is he does to the other of these Sciences. ations of other Modes may certainly be perceived as well as those of Number and Extension. Where there i no Property, there is no Injustice, is a Proposition as tertain as any Demonstration in Euclid: For the idea

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of Property being a right to any thing; and the idea of Injustice, being the invasion or violation of that right; it is evident that thefe ideas being thus effablished, and these names annexed to them, I can as certainly know this Proposition to be true, as that a Triangle has three Angles equal to two right ones. A gain, no Government allows absolute Liberty. idea of Government being the establishment of Society upon certain rules or laws, which require conformity to them; and the idea of absolute Liberty, being for any one to do whatever he pleases, I am as capable of being certain of the truth of this Propofition, as of any in Mathematicks.

§ 17. What has given the advantage to the ideas of Quantity, and made them thought more capable of Certainty and Demonstration, is.

First, That they can be represented by sensible marks, which have a nearer correspondence with them, than any Words or Sounds. Diagrams drawn on paper, are copies of the ideas, and not liable to the uncertainty that words carry in their fignification. But we have no fenfible Marks that refemble our moral ideas, and nothing but words to express them by; which though, when written, they remain the same; yet the ideas they stand for, may change in the same man; and it is very feldom that they are not different in different persons.

Secondly, moral ideas, are commonly more complex than Figures: Whence these two inconveniences sollow: First, That their names are of more uncertain Signification; the precise collection of simple ideas they stand for, not being so easily agreed on, and so the Sign that is used for them in Communication al-

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afily retain those precise combinations so exactly and refectly as is necessary; in the examination of the Habitudes and Correspondences, agreements or difgreements of feveral of them one with another, efecially where it is to be judged of by long deductims, and the Intervention of feveral other complex ides, to show the agreement or disagreement of two remote ones.

§ 18. Now one part of these disadvantages in moral ideas, which has made them be thought not capble of Demonstration, may in a good measure be remedied by Definitions, fetting down that collection of simple ideas which every term shall stand for, and then using the terms steadily and constantly for that recise collection.

19. As to the fourth fort of Knowledge, viz. If the real actual Existence of things, we have an inuntive Knowledge of our own Existence: A demonhative Knowledge of the Existence of God; and Institute Knowledge of the Objects that present themblues to our Senfes. The sent and the sent a

§ 20. From what has been said we may discover be Causes of our Ignorance, which are chiefly these bree, First, Want of ideas; Secondly, Want of a difwerable connexion between the ideas we have Thirdly, Want of tracing and examining our ideas.

1 21. First, There are some things we are ignoant of for want of ideas. All the simple ideas we ave, are confined to the Observation of our Senses, and the Operation of our Minds, that we are conions of in ourselves. What other ideas it is posfible

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fible other creatures may have, by the affiftance of ther fenses and faculties more or perfecter than w have, or different from ours, it is not for us to deter mine; but to fay or think there are no fuch, becau we conceive nothing of them, is no better an argu ment, than if a blind man should be positive in it that there was no fuch thing as fight and colour because he had no manner of idea of any such thing What faculties therefore other species of creature have to penetrate into the nature and inmost constitu tions of things, we know not. This we know, an certainly find, that we want other views of them besides those we have to make discoveries of the more perfect. The intellectual and sensible world a in this perfectly alike, that the parts which we fee either of them, hold no proportion with that we fe not; and whatsoever we can reach with our eyes, our thoughts of either of them, is but a point, a most nothing, in comparison of the rest.

§ 22. Another great cause of Ignorance, is in want of ideas that we are capable of. This keep us in ignorance of things we conceive capable of being known. Bulk, Figure, and Motion we have idea of: Yet not knowing what is the particular bulk, motion and figure of the greatest part of the bodies of the Universe, we are ignorant of the several Power Efficacies and Ways of Operation, whereby the Efficacies are produced.

\$ 23. When we consider the vast distance of the known and visible parts of the world, and the reasons we have to think that what lies within our ke

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but a small part of the immense Universe; we shall in discover an huge Abyss of Ignorance. What the particular fabricks of the great masses of Matwhich make up the whole stupendous frame of poreal Beings, how far they are extended, and hat is their motion, and how continued, and what fuence they have upon one another, are contemplaions that at first glimpse our thoughts lose themselves If we confine our thoughts to this little Canton, mean this System of our Sun, and the groffer Mass of Matter that visibly move about it; what seveal forts of Vegetables, Animals, and Intellectual corpreal Beings, infinitely different from those of our tile spot of Earth, may probably be in other Planets, the knowledge of which, even of their outward gures and parts, we can no way attain, whilst we re confined to this Earth, there being no natural means, either by Sensation or Reflection, to convey heir certain ideas into our minds?

§ 24. There are other Bodies in the Universe, no s concealed from us by their minuteness. These inhible Corpuscles being the active parts of Matter. ad the great instruments of Nature, on which depend their secondary Qualities and Operations, our want precise distinct ideas of their primary Qualities, teps us in incurable Ignorance of what we defire to low about them. Did we know the mechanical fections of Rhubarb and Opium, we might as easily count for their Operations of Purging and caufing thep, as a Watch-maker can for the motions of his vatch. The dissolving of Silver in Aqua Fortis, or sold in Aqua Regia, and not vice versa, would be perhaps no more difficult to know, than it is

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to a Smith, to understand why the turning of or key will open a lock, and not the turning of a other. But whilst we are destitute of fenses, a cute enough to discover the minute particles of Bo dies, and to give us ideas of their mechanical a fections, we must be content to be ignorant their Properties and Operations; nor can we b affured about them any farther, than fome few tria we make, are able to reach: But whether they wi fucceed again another time, we cannot be certain This hinders our certain knowledge of universal truths concerning natural Bodies: And our reason carries us herein very little beyond particular matte of fact.

§ 25. And therefore I am apt to doubt, tha how far foever human Industry may advance useful and experimental Philosophy in physical things, ye scientifical will still be out of our reach; because we want perfect and adequate ideas of those very Bodie which are nearest to us, and most under our com mand.

§ 26. This at first fight shows us how dispro portionate our knowledge is to the whole extent, ever of material Beings: To which, if we add the con sideration of that infinite number of Spirits that may be, and probably are, which are yet more remote from our Knowledge, whereof we have no cogni zance: We shall find this cause of Ignorance con ceal from us, in an impenetrable obscurity, almos the whole intellectual world: A greater certainly and a more beautiful world than the material. For bat ing some very few ideas of Spirit, we get from ou own mind by reflection, and from thence the bel

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the can collect, of the Father of all Spirits, the Autor of them, and us, and all things: We have no
main Information, so much as of the Existence of
ther Spirits but by Revelation: Much less have we
stand the solutions of their different Natures, States, Powers,
and leveral Constitutions, wherein they agree or differ one from another, and from us. And therefore
is what concerns their different Species and Properits, we are under an absolute Ignorance.

fajcoverable connexion between those ideas we have; where we want that, we are utterly incapable of unitersal and certain Knowledge; and are, as in the former case, lest only to Observation and Experiment. Thus the mechanical affections of Bodies, having no stinity at all with the ideas they produce in us, we can have no distinct Knowledge of such Operations beyond our Experience; and can reason no otherwise shout them, than as the effects or appointment of an infinitely wise Agent, which perfectly surpass our comprehensions.

The Operation of our minds upon our Bodies, is sunconceivable. How any Thought should produce motion in Body, is as remote from the nature of our ideas, as how any Body should produce any thought in the mind. That it is so, if experience did not convince us, the consideration of the things themkives, would never be able in the least to discover to us.

§ 28. In some of our ideas there are certain Relations, Habitudes, and Connexions, so visibly included in the nature of the ideas themselves, that we cannot conceive them separable from them by any

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power whatfoever: In these only we are capable certain and universal knowledge. Thus the idea a right lined Triangle, necessarily carries with it a Equality of its Angles to two right ones. But the coherence and continuity of the parts of matter the production of Sensation in us, of Colours an Sounds, &c. by Impulse, and Motion, being suc wherein we can discover no natural Connexion with any ideas we have, we cannot but ascribe them t the arbitrary will and good pleafure of the wife Archi tect. The things that we observe constantly to proceed regularly, we may conclude do act by a law fet them but yet by a law that we know not; whereby, though causes work steadily, and effects flow constantly from them; yet their connexions and dependencies be ing not discoverable in our ideas, we can have bu experimental knowledge of them. Several effect come every day within the notice of our Senses, of which we have fo far sensitive Knowledge. But th Causes, Manner, and Certainty of their Production we must, for the foregoing reasons, be content to In these we can go no farther that be ignorant of. particular Experience informs us of matter of fact and by Analogy, guess what effects the like Bodie are upon other Trials like to produce. But as to perfect science of natural Bodies (not to mention spi ritual Beings) we are, I think, so far from being ca pable of any such thing, that I conclude it lost la bour to feek after it.

§ .29. The third cause of Ignorance is our wan of tracing thefe ideas we have, or may have; and finding out those intermediate ideas which may show us what Habitude of Agreement or Difagreemen the

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nen her they may have one with another: And thus many are morant of mathematical Truths, for want of appliation in enquiring, examining, and by due ways comparing those ideas.

§ 30. Hitherto we have examined the Extent of our Knowledge, in respect of the several forts of Beings that are. There is another Extent of it, in respect of Universality, which will also deserve to be mildered; and in this regard our Knowledge folbws the Nature of our ideas. If the ideas are abfract, whose agreement or disagreement we perceive, for Knowledge is universal. For what is known of hich general ideas, will be true of every particular ding in which that Essence, that is, that abstract idea to be found: And what is once known of fuch ileas, will be perpetually, and for ever true. So that, s to all general Knowledge, we must search and and it only in our own minds: And it is only the tramining of our own ideas, that furnishes us with Truths belonging to Essences of things (that is, to abstract ideas) are eternal, and are to be found out by the Contemplation only of those Essences; as be existence of things is to be known only from Experience. But I shall fay more of this in the folbwing Chapters, where I shall speak of general, and real Knowledge.

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CHAP. IV.

Of the Reality of our Knowledge.

§ 1.

DOUBT not but my Reader, by this time, may b apt to think that I have been all this while only building a Castle in the Air; and be ready to object If it be true, that all Knowledge lies only in th perception of the agreement or disagreement of ou own ideas, the visions of an Enthusiast, and the rea fonings of a fober man will be equally certain: It is no matter how things are, fo a man observe but th agreement of his own imaginations, and talk con formably, It it all Truth, all Certainty. That a Harpy is not a Centaur, is by this way as certain Knowledge, and as much Truth, as that a Squar But of what use is all this Know is not a Circle. ledge of mens own Imaginations, to a man that en quires after the reality of things?

§ 2. To which I answer, That if our Knowledge of our ideas should terminate in them, and reach no farther, where there is something farther intended, our most serious thoughts would be of little more use than the Reveries of a crazy brain. But I hope, be fore I have done, to make it evident, that this was of Certainty by the Knowledge of our own ideas goes a little farther than bare Imagination: And that all the Certainty of general Truths a man has, lies in nothing else but this Knowledge of our ideas.

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of them. Our knowledge therefore is real, onfo far as there is a conformity between our ideas,
and the reality of things. But how shall we know
then our ideas agree with things themselves? I anformer, there be two forts of ideas that we may be asformed agree with things: These are,

§ 4. First, Simple ideas; which fince the mind m by no means make to itself, must be the effect of ings operating upon the mind in a natural way; nd producing therein those perceptions, which by he will of our Maker, they are ordained and adaptd to. Hence it follows, that simple ideas are not stions of our fancies, but the natural and regular roductions of things without us, really operating pon us; which carry with them all the conformity wishate requires, which is to represent things under tole appearances they are fitted to produce in us. Thus the idea of Whiteness, as it is in the mind, exally answers that power which is in any body to moduce it there. And this conformity between our inple ideas, and the existence of things, is sufficient or real Knowledge.

§ 5. Secondly, All our complex ideas, except these substances, being Archetypes of the mind's own taking, and not referred to the existence of things as their originals, cannot want any conformity necessary to real Knowledge. For that which is not designate or represent any thing but itself, can never be capable of a wrong representation. Here the ideas themselves are considered as Apchetypes, and things to otherwise regarded, than as they are consormable

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Truth and Properties belonging to a Reclangle of Circle only, as they are ideas in his own mind, whice possibly he never found existing mathematically, the is, precisely true: Yet his knowledge is not only certain, but real; because real things are no farther concerned nor intended to be meant by any such propositions, than as things really agree to those Archetypes in his mind. It is true of the idea of a True angle, that its three Angles are equal to two right ones; it is true also of a Triangle wherever it exists: What is true of those Figures, that have bare ly an ideal existence in his mind, will hold true them also, when they come to have a real existence in Matter.

S 6. Hence it follows, that moral Knowledge is eapable of real Certainty as Mathematicks: For Centainty being nothing but the Perception of the agreement or disagreement of our ideas, and Demonstrate on nothing but the Perception of such agreement the intervention of other ideas; our moral ideas well as mathematical, being Archetypes themselve and so adequate or complete ideas, all the agreement or disagreement we shall find in them, will produce the product of the p

§ 7. But it will here be said, that if moral Kno ledge be placed in the Contemplation of our of moral ideas; and those be of our own making, what there be of Justice and Templatical and Temp

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nance? What confusion of Virtues and Vices, if eveman may make what ideas of them he pleases? I mswer, No confusion nor disorder at all, in the bings themselves, nor the reasonings about them, no more than there would be a change in the Properties of Figures, and their Relations one to another, if a man should make a Triangle with four Corners, or a Trapezium with four Right Angles; that is, in plain English, change the names of the Figures, and call that by one name, which is called ordinarily by ano-The change of name will indeed at first difturb him, who knows not what idea it stands for : But as foon as the figure is drawn the confequences and demonstration are plain and clear. Just the same is it in moral Knowledge: Let a man have the idea of taking from others, without their consent, what they are justly possessed of, and call this Justice if he pleases; he that takes the name here, without the idea put to it, will be mistaken by joining another idea of his own to that name; but strip the idea of that Daise, or take it fuch as it is in the Speaker's mind; and the same things will agree to it, as if you called it Injustice.

§ 8. One thing we are to take notice of, That where God, or any other Law maker, has defined any moral names, there they have made the Essence of that Species to which that name belongs: And there it is not safe to apply, or use them otherwise. But in other cases it is bare impropriety of Speech, to apply them contrary to the common usage of the country they are used in.

§ 9. Thirdly, But the complex ideas which we refer to Archetypes without us, may differ from them,

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and fo our Knowledge about them may come thor of being real: And fuch are our ideas of Substances. These must be taken from something, that does on has existed, and not be made up of ideas arbitrarily put together without any real Pattern. Herein therefore is founded the Reality of our Knowledge concerning Substances, that all our complex ideas of them must be fuch, and fuch only, as are made up of fuch fimple ones, as have been discovered to coexist in Nature. And our ideas being thus true, though not perhaps very exact Copies, are the Subjects of real Whatever ideas we have, the Knowledge of them. agreement we find they have with others will be Knowledge. If those ideas be abstract, it will be general Knowledge: But to make it real concerning Substances, the ideas must be taken from the real Existence of things. Wherever therefore we perceive the agreement or disagreement of our ideas, there is certain Knowledge: And wherever we are fure those ideas agree with the Reality of Things, there is certain real Knowledge.

CHAP. V.

Of Truth in General.

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RUTH, in the proper import of the word, signifies the joining or separating of signs; as the things signified by them, do agree or disagree one with another. The joining or separating of signs, is what we call Propositions; so that Truth properly belong only

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Mental and Verbal, as there are two Sorts, mental and Verbal, as there are two forts of Signs commonly made use of, Ideas and Words.

§ 2. It is difficult to treat of mental Propositions without verbal: Because in speaking of mental, we must make use of Words, and then they become Again, men commonly in their thoughts nerbal. and reasonings, use words instead of ideas; especially I the subject of their meditation contains in it complex ileas. If we have occasion to form mental Proposiions about White, Black, Circle, &c. we can, and often do, frame in our minds the ideas themselves, without reflecting on the Names. But when we would confider, or make Propositions about the more umplex ideas, as of a Man, Vitriol, Fortitude, Glory, &c. we usually put the name for the idea; because the idea these names stand for, being for the most prt confused, impersect, aed undetermined; we relect on the names themselves, as being more clear, tertain, distinct, and readier to occur to our thoughts, than pure ideas; And so we make use of these words instead of the ideas themselves, even when we would meditate and reason within ourselves, and make tacit mental Propositions.

§ 3. We must then observe two sorts of Propositions, that we are capable of making. First, mental, Propositions, wherein the ideas in our Understandings are put together, or separated by the mind, perceiving or indoing of their agreement or disagreement. Secondly, Verbal Propositions, which are words put together, or sparate in affirmative or negative Sentences: So that Proposition consists in joining or separating Signs: And Truth consists in putting together, or separating

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178 An ABRIDGMENT of Book IV these Signs, according as the things they stand so agree or disagree.

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§ 3. Truth of

S 4. Truth as well as Knowledge may well communder the Distinction of Verbal and Real; that being only Verbal Truth, wherein Terms are joined according to the agreement or disagreement of the idea they stand for, without regarding whether our idea are such as really have, or are capable of having at Existence in Nature. But then it is they contain real Truth, when these Signs are joined, as our idea agree; and when our ideas are such as we know, are capable of having an Existence in Nature; which in Substances we cannot know, but by knowing that such have existed.

§ 5. Truth is the marking down in words the agreement or disagreement of ideas, as it is. False hood is the marking down in words the agreement or disagreement of ideas, otherwise than it is; and so far as these ideas thus marked by Sounds, agree to their Archetypes, so far only is the Truth real. The Knowledge of this Truth consists in knowing what ideas the words stand for, and the Perception of the agreement or disagreement of those ideas, according as it is marked by those words.

§ 6. Besides Truth taken in the strict Sense before mentioned, there are other sorts of Truths: As, Ist. Moral Truth, which is, speaking things according to the persuasion of our own minds. 2dly, Metaphy-sical Truth, which is nothing but the real Existence of things conformable to the ideas to which we have annexed their names.

These Considerations of Truth either having been before taken notice of, or not being much to our present

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CHAP. VI.

Of universal Propositions, their Truth and Certainty.

THE prevailing custom of using Sounds for ideas, I even when men think and reason within their own breasts, makes the consideration of Words and Propstions so necessary a part of the Treatise of Knowdge, that it is very hard to speak intelligibly of the me, without explaining the other. And fince genend Truths, which with reason are most sought after, on never be well made known, and are feldom apprehended, but as conceived and expressed in words; is not out of our way in the examination of our wo Knowledge, to enquire into the Truth and Certainty of universal Knowledge.

§ 2. But it must be observed, that Certainty is ding wo-fold, Certainty of Truth, and Certainty of Knowbe. Certainty of Truth is, when words are fo put together in Propositions, as exactly to express the greement or disagreement of the ideas they stand it; as really it is. Certainty of Knowledge, is to receive the agreement or disagreement of ideas as apressed in any Propositions. This we usually call howing, or being certain of the Truth of any Propition.

> 3. Now because we cannot be certain of the bruth of any general Proposition, unless we know the precise

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precise bounds and extent of the Species its terms star for; it is necessary we should know the Essence each Species, which is that which constitutes an This in all fimple ideas and modes is no bounds it. hard to do: For in these the real and nominal E fence being the fame, there can be no doubt how for the Species extends, or what things are comprehend ed under each Term: Which it is evident are all the have an exact Conformity with the ideas it stands for and no other. But in substances wherein a real E sence, distinct from the nominal, is supposed to con stitute, and bound the Species, the extent of the g neral word is very uncertain; because not knowing this real Essence, we cannot know what is, or is no of that Species, and confequently what may, or ma not with Certainty be affirmed of it.

§ 4. Hence we may see that the names of Substant ses, when made to stand for Species, supposed to be co stituted by real Essences, which we know not, are n capable of conveying Certainty to the Understanding Of the truth of general Propositions made up of su Terms we cannot be fure. For how can we be fu that this or that Quality is in Gold, for instance, who we know not what is, or is not Gold; that is, wh has, or has not the real Essence of Gold, whereof w have no idea at all.

§ 5. On the other fide, the names of Substance when made use of for the complex ideas men have their minds; though they carry a clear and determ nate Signification with them, will not yet serve us make many universal Propositions, of whose truth can be certain : because the simple ideas, out of whi the complex are combined, carry not with them a

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mble Connexion of Repugnancy, but with a very wother ideas.

§ 6. For instance, All Gold is fixed, is a Proposition re cannot be certain of, how univerfally foever it be lieved: For if we take the term Gold to stand for real Essence, it is evident we know not what partimlar Substances are of that Species, and so cannot with Certainty affirm any thing universally of Gold. But if we make the term Gold stand for a Species, termined by its nominal Essence, be its complex idea that it will; for instance, a body Yellow, Fusible, Malleable, and very heavy; no Quality can with Cerminty be denied or affirmed univerfally of it, but that has a discoverable connexion, or inconsistency with that nominal Essence: Fixedness, for instance, wing no necessary connexion that we can discover with any simple idea that makes the complex one, or with the whole combination together; it is impossible hat we should certainly know the truth of this Prophition, All Gold is Fixed. But is not this an uniterfal certain Proposition, All Gold is malleable? I anwer, it is so, if Malleableness be a part of the complex idea, the word Gold stands for: But then here nothing affirmed of Gold, but that, that Sound lands for an idea, in which Malleableness is contained. and such a fort of Truth and Certainty it is, to fay Centaur is four footed.

§ 7. I imagine amongst all the secondary Qualities of Substances, and the Powers relating to them, there cannot any two be named, whose necessary Coexistance or Repugnance to coexist can be certainly known, mess in those of the same Sense, which necessarily actude one another. Thus by the Colour we can-

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- 182 An ABRIDGMENT of Book I not certainly know what Smell, Tafte, &c. any bo is of.
- § 8. It is no wonder then that Certainty is to found but in very few general Propositions concerning Substances: Our knowledge of their Qualities at Properties goes very seldom farther than our Sent reach, or inform us. Inquisitive and observing many, by Strength of Judgment, penetrate farther and on Probabilities taken from wary Observation and Hints well laid together, often guess right what Experience has not yet discovered to them: But this is but guessing still; it amounts only to Opinion and has not that Certainty which is requisite to Knowledge.
- § 9. To conclude: General Propositions, of whe kind soever, are then only capable of Certainty, who the Terms used in them stand for such ideas, who agreement or disagreement, as there expressed, is catable to be discovered by us. And we are then certain of their Truth or Falsehood, when we perceive the ideas they stand for, to agree or not agree, a cording as they are affirmed or denied one of another whence we may take notice, that general Certainty never to be found but in our ideas. Whenever we go to seek it elsewhere in Experiment or Observations without us, our Knowledge goes not beyon particulars.

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CHAP. VII.

Of Maxims.

§ 1.

THERE are a fort of Propositions, which under the name of Maxims and Axioms, have passed Principles of Science: And because they are selfident, have been supposed innate. But if those, who would persuade us that there are innate principles, had considered, separately, the parts out of which those propositions are made, they would not, perhaps, have been fo forward to believe they were Since, if the ideas, which made up those truths, were not, it was impossible * that the propostions, made up of them, should be innate, or our knowledge of them be born with us. For if the ileas be not innate, there was a time when the mind was without those principles; and then, they will not be innate, but be derived from fome other original. It is impossible for the same thing to be, and not to be, is certainly (if there be any fuch) an innate principle. But the names impossibility and identity hand for two ideas, so far from being innate, or. born with us, that I think it requires great care and attention to form them right in our understanding. They are so far from being brought into the world with us, so remote from the thoughts of infanmy and childhood, that I believe, upon examination, it will be found, that many grown men want them.'

^{*} Book I. Chap. iv. § 1. and 3.

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of 2. It may be worth while likewife to enquire in to the reason of the Evidence of these Maxims, an examine how far they influence our other Knowledge Knowledge being but the Perception of the agreement or disagreement of ideas, where that agreement or disagreement is perceived immediately by itself without the Intervention or Help of any other idea, there our Knowledge is self evident: Which being so not only Maxims, but an infinite number of other Propositions partake equally with them in this Self evidence. For,

§ 3. In respect of Identity and Diversity, we ma have as many Self-evident Propositions as we have It is the first act of the mind, t dillinct ideas. know every one of its ideas by itself, and distinguish it from others. Every one finds in himself, that h knows the ideas he has; that he knows also when ny one is in his Understanding, and what it is; an that when more than one are there, he knows the distinctly and unconsusedly, one from another; that all affirmations, or negations concerning then are made without any possibility of Doubt or Uncer tainty; and must necessarily be assented to as soo as understood: That is, as soon as we have in ou minds the ideas clear and distinct, which the Term in the Proposition stand for. Thus a Circle is a Ci cle, Blue is not Red, are as felf-evident Proposition as those general ones, What is is, and it is impessib for the same thing to be and not to be; nor can the Consideration of these Axioms add any thing to the Evidence, or Certainty of our Knowledge of them.

§ 4. As to the agreement or disagreement of Consistence, the mind has an immediate Perception

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this, but in very few. And therefore, in this fort we have very little intuitive Knowledge: Though, in time few Propositions we have. Two Bodies cannot in the same Place, I think is a self-evident Proposition. The idea of sitting a place equal to the contents of its superficies being annexed to our idea of Body.

S s. As to the Relations of Modes, Mathematicius have framed many Axioms concerning that one delation of Equality, as Equals taken from Equals, the

hmainder will be equal, &c. which however received for Axioms, yet I think have not a clearer felf evidence than the formand One and Found to Tour

tence than these, that One and One are Equal to Two: That if from the five Fingers of one Hand, you take two, and from the five Fingers of the other Hand two,

the remaining Numbers will be equal. These and a thousand other such Propositions may be found in

Numbers, which carry with them an equal, if not meater clearness than those mathematical Axioms.

§ 6. As to real Existence, since that has no conlexion with any other of our ideas, but that of ourleves, and of a first Being; we have not so much a demonstrative, much less a self-evident Knowlege, concerning the real Existence of other Beings.

In the next place let us consider what influace these Maxims have upon the other parts of our lowledge. The rules established in the schools, that all reasonings are ex pracognitis et praconcessis, tem to lay the Foundation of all other Knowledge ithese Maxims, and to suppose them to be pracogtha; whereby I think is meant two things: if, that these Axioms are those truths that are first

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known to the mind: 2dly, That upon them the othe parts of our Knowledge depend.

& 8. First, That these Axioms are not the truth first known to the mind, is evident from experience For who knows not that a child perceives that Aranger is not its mother, long before he knows, tha it is impossible for the same thing to be and not to be And how many truths are there about Numbers which the mind is perfectly acquainted with, an fully convinced of, before it ever thought on these ge neral Maxims? Of this the Reason in plain; for the which makes the mind affent to fuch Proposition being nothing but the Perception it has of the agree ment or difagreement of its ideas, according as finds them affirmed or denied in words one of and ther; and every idea being known to be what it is and every two distinct ideas not to be the same, must necessarily follow, that such felf-evident truth must be first known, which confist of ideas, that a first in the mind; and the ideas first in the mind, is evident, are those of particular things; from whence by flow degrees, the Understanding proceeds to for few general ones, which being taken from the ord pary and familiar objects of Sense, are settled in the mind, with general names to them. Thus partic lar ideas are first received and distinguished, and Knowledge got about them; and next to them t less general or specifick, which are next to particul ones.

to Children or the yet unexercited mind, as parid lar ones. If they seem so to grown Men, it is of because by constant and familiar use they are made Fo fin

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for when we nicely reflect upon them, we shall find, that general ideas carry difficulty with them, and do not so easily offer themselves as we are apt to imagine. It is true, the mind, in this imperfect state, has need of such ideas, and makes all the haste to them it can, for the conveniency of communication and enlargement of knowledge; to both which it is naturely very much inclined.

§ 10. Secondly, From what has been faid, it plainfollows, that these magnified Maxims are not the minciples and foundations of all our other Knowledge: for if there be a great many other truths, as felfmident as they, and a great many that we know bebre them, it is impossible that they should be the Principles, from which we deduce all other Truths. Thus, that One and Two are equal to Three, is as eident, and easier known than that the Whole is equal hall its Parts. Nor after the Knowledge of this Maxim, do we know that One and Two are equal to Three, better, or more certainly than we did bebre. For if there be any odds in these ideas, the was of Whole, and Parts, are more obscure, or at half more difficult to be fettled in the mind, than hose of One, Two and Three. Either therefore all knowledge does not depend on certain Pracognita, r general Maxims, called Principles; or elfe, such as hele, (That One and One are Two, that Two and Two ve Four, &c.) and a great part of Numeration will be To which if we add all the felf-evident propotions that may be made about all our distinct ideas : finciples will be almost infinite, at least innumerable, thich men arrive to the Knowledge of, at different es; and a great many of those innate Principles, they

they never come to know all their lives. But whe ther they come in view early or later, they are alknown by their native evidence, and receive no light nor are capable of any proof one from another much less the more particular, from the more general; or the more simple from the more compounded. The more simple and less abstract, being the most familiar, and the easier and earlier apprehended.

SIL. These general Maxims then, are only of use in disputes, to stop the mouths of wranglers; but not of much use to the discovery of unknown Truths or to help the mind forwards in its search after Know ledge. Several general Maxims, are no more that bare verbal Propositions; and teach us nothing but the respect and import of names, one to another as, The Whole is equal to all its parts: What rea Truth does it teach us more, than what the signification of the word Totum, or whole, does of itself import?

S 12. But yet, Mathematicians do not without reason place this, and some other such amongst their Maxims; that their scholars having in the entrance perfectly acquainted their thoughts with these Propositions made in such general Terms, may have then ready to apply to all particular cases: Not that they be equally weighed, they are more clear and evident, than the particular instances they are brought to consirm; but that being more familiar to the Mind, the very naming them is enough to satisfy the Understanding. But this I say, is more from our custom of using them, than the different evidence of the things.

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out us; neither of these two self-evident principles, wiz. what is is, and the same thing cannot be, and be, will serve to prove to us, that any, or what bodies do exist: For that we are left to our senses, to discover to us as far as they can. Those universal and self-evident principles, can assure us of nothing that passes without the mind; they cannot discover or prove to us the least knowledge of the nature of substances, as they are found and exist without us, any farther than grounded on experience.

§ 14. So that, if rightly considered, I think we may say, that where our ideas are clear and distinct, there is little, or no use at all of these Islaxims, to prove the agreement or disagreement of any of them. He that cannot discern the Truth, or Fassehood of such Propositions, without the help of these and the ske Maxims, will not be helped by these Maxims to do it. He that needs any proof to make him certain, and give his assent to this Proposition, that Two see equal to Two, or that White is not Black, will also save need of a proof to make him admit that, What it, is, or, That it is impossible for the same thing to be and not to be.

It is and as these Maxims are of little use, where we have clear and distinct ideas; so they are of danfrom use, where our ideas are confused, and where
we use words that are not annexed to clear and dilingt ideas; but to such as are of a loose and wanting signification, sometimes standing for one, and
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fometimes for another idea, from which follows Missake and Error, which these Maxims (brought as proofs to establish Propositions wherein the terms stand for confused and uncertain ideas) do by their authority consirm and rivet.

CHAP. VIII.

Of trifling Propositions.

§ 1.

THERE are universal Propositions, which though they be certainly true, yet add no light to our Understandings, bring no increase to our Knowledge Such are,

§ 2. First, All purely identical Propositions. These at first blush, appear to contain no Instruction is them: For when we affirm the same term of itself it shows us nothing but what we must certainly know before, whether such a Proposition be either made by, or proposed to us.

§ 3. Secondly, Another fort of trifling Propositions is, when a part of the complex idea is predicate of the name of the whole; a part of the definition, of the word defined, as, Lead is a Metal, Man an Animal. These carry no information at al, to those who know the complex ideas, the names Lead, an Man stand for: Indeed to a man that knows the signification of the word Metal, and not of the word Lead, it is a shorter way to explain the signification of the word Lead, by saying it is a Metal, than be

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numerating the simple ideas one by one, which nake up the complex idea of Metal.

Alike trifling it is to predicate any one of the imple ideas of a complex ones of the name of the whole implex idea; as all Gold is fusible; for fusibility being me of the simple idea, that goes to the making up the complex one; the sound Gold stands for; what can it be but playing with sounds, to affirm that of the name Gold, which is comprehended in its received signification? What instruction can it carry, to tell me that which he is supposed to know before? for sam supposed to know the signification of the word mother uses to me, or else he is to tell me.

§ 5. The general Propositions that are made about lubstances, if they are certain, are for the most part in trifling; and if they are instructive, are uncerin; and fuch as we have no Knowledge of their al truth, how much foever constant Observation and halogy may affift our Judgments in Guessing. Hence comes to pass, that one may often meet with very har and coherent discourses, that amount yet to noing. For names of substantial Beings, as well as ters, having fettled Significations affixed to them, by with great truth be joined negatively and affirmately in Propositions, as their Definitions make them to be so joined; and Propositions consisting of such ms, may with the same clearness be deduced one om another, as those that convey the most real uths; and all this without any Knowledge of the ture or reality of things existing without us. Thus that has learnt the following words, with their orary acceptations annexed to them, viz. Substance, In, Animal, Form, Soul, Vegetative, Sensative, Rati-

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onal, may make several undoubted Propositions about the Soul, without any Knowledge at all of what it Soul really is. And of this fort a man may find infinite number of Propositions, Reasonings and Couclusions, in books of Metaphysicks, School-Divinit and some part of Natural Philosophy; and after a known as little of God, Spirits, or Bodies, as he debefore he set out.

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§ 6. Thirdly, The worst sort of Trissing is, to a words loosely and uncertainly, which sets us yet farth from the certainty of Knowledge we hope to atta to by them, or find in them. That which occasio this, is, that men may find it convenient to shelt their ignorance or obstinacy, under the obscurity perplexedness of their terms; to which, perhaps, it advertency and ill-custom does in many men mu contribute.

§ 7. To conclude, barely verbal Propositions m be known by these following marks.

terms are affirmed one of another, are barely about the Signification of Sounds. For fince no abstraction are the same with any other, but itself when its abstract name is affirmed of any other term it can signify no more but this, that it may or our to be called by that name; or that these two names signify the same idea.

\$ 9. Secondly, All Propositions, wherein a part the complex idea, which any term stands for, is predited of that term, are only verbal: And thus all P positions wherein more comprehensive terms cal Genera, are affirmed of subordinate, or less comp hensive, called Species, or Individuals, are barely a I

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When by these two rules we examine the Promitions that make up the discourses we ordinarily tet with, both in and out of books; we shall thaps find, that a greater part of them, than is shally suspected, are purely about the Signification I words, and contain nothing in them but the use and application of these Signs.

CHAP. IX.

Of our Knowledge of Existence.

§ 1.

ITHER TO we have only considered the Essences of things, which, being only abstract ideas, and treby removed in our thoughts from particular Extence, give us no Knowledge of Existence at all. It proceed now to enquire concerning our Knowledge of the Existence of things, and how we come

2. I say then, that we have the Knowledge four own Existence, by Intuition: of the Existence sod, by Demonstration; and of other Things, by mation.

§ 3. As for our own Existence, we perceive it so linly, that it neither needs, nor is capable of any toof. I think, I reason; I feel pleasure and pain: In any of these be more evident to me than my mexistence? If I doubt of all other things, that my Doubt makes me perceive my own Existence, will not suffer me to doubt of that. If I know doubt, I have as certain a Perception of the Thing R

AN ABRIDGMENT OF Book IV 194

Doubting, as of that Thought which I call Doub Experience then convinces us that we have an inti tive Knowledge of our own Existence; and an inte nal infallible Perception that we are. In every a of Sensation, Reasoning or Thinking, we are confe ous to ourselves of our own Being, and in this ma ter come not short of the highest degree of Certaint

CHAP. X.

Of our Knowledge of the Existence of a God.

HOUGH God has given us no innate ideas of his felf, yet having furnished us with those facu ties our minds are endowed with, he hath not le himself without a witness, since we have Sense, Pe ception, and Reason, and cannot want a clear pro of him, as long as we carry ourselves about us: N can we justly complain of our ignorance in this gre point, fince he has fo plentifully provided us wi means to discover, and know him, so far as is nec tary to the end of our Being, and the great concer ment of our Happiness. But though this be the me obvious truth that Reason discovers, yet it requir Thought and Attention; and the mind must app itself to a regular deduction of it, from some part our intuitive Knowledge; or else we shall be as i porant of this as of other Propositions which are themselves capable of clear Demonstration. To she therefore, that we are capable of knowing, that being certain, that there is a God; and how we m

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one by this certainty, I think we need go no farther tan ourselves, and that undoubted Knowledge we are of our own Existence.

§ 2. I think it is beyond question, that man has a har perception of his own being: He knows certainly hat he exists, and that he is something.

§ 3. In the next place, man knows by an intuitive Certainty, that bare nothing can no more produce
my real being, than it can be equal to two right Angles.
If therefore we know there is some real Being, it is
m evident Demonstration, that from Eternity there
has been something; since what was not from Eternimy, had a beginning; and what had a beginning,
must be produced by something else.

§ 4. Next it is evident, that what has its being from another, must also have all that which is in, and blings to its being from another too: All the powers that must be owing to, and received from the same burce. This eternal source then of all Being must be also the source and original of all Power; and so his Eternal Being must be also the most Powerful.

§ 5. Again, man finds in himfelf Perception and howledge: We are certain then that there is not mly fome Being, but fome knowing, intelligent Beig in the world. There was a time then, when here was no knowing Being, or else there has been knowing Being from Eternity. If it be faid, there has a time when that Eternal Being had no Knowage; I reply, that then it is impossible there should It being as impofhave ever been any Knowledge. ble that things wholly void of Knowledge, and otrating blindly, and without any perception, should oduce a knowing Being, as it is that a Triangle should R 2

fhould make itself three Angles, bigger than twright ones.

§ 6. Thus from the confideration of ourselve and what we infallibly find in our own constitution our reason leads us to the knowledge of this certal and evident Truth, that there is an eternal, may powerful, and Knowing Being, which, whether any or will call God, it matters not. The thing is eviden and from this idea, duly considered, will be deduced all those other Attributes we ought to ascribe to the Eternal Being.

From what has been faid, it is plain to me, we have a more certain knowledge of the Existence a God, than of any thing our senses have not immediately discovered to us. Nay, I presume I me say, that we more certainly know that there is God, than that there is any thing else without to When I say, we know, I mean, there is such a Knowledge within our reach, which we cannot miss, if we will but apply our minds to that, as we do to sever other Enquiries.

S 7. It being then unavoidable for all ration Creatures to conclude, that fomething has existed from Eternity; let us next see what kind of Thing the must be. There are but two sorts of Beings in two world, that man knows or conceives: Ist, Such are purely material, without sense or perception, the clippings of our beards, and parings of our nail adly, Sensible perceiving Beings; such as we find our selves to be. These two sorts we shall hereast call Cogitative and Incogitative Beings: Which our pretent purpose are better than material and in material.

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Ch. 10. II: & 8. If then there must be something Eternal, it tv elve tion erta m y of den luce o th ce mm m is it t nov if v ever tion fre

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svery obvious to Reason, that it must necessarily be Cogitative Being; because it is as impossible to congive that ever bare Incogitative Matter should produce a thinking intelligent Being, as that nothing hould of itself produce Matter. Let us suppose any parcel of matter Eternal, we shall find it in itself unable to produce any thing. Let us suppose its parts firmly at rest together: If there were no other Being in the world, must it not eternally remain so, a dead unactive lump? Is it possible to conceive it can add motion to itself, or produce any thing? Matter then by its own strength cannot produce in itself, so much as Motion. The motion it has, must also be from Eternity, or else added to Matter by some other Being, more powerful than Matter. But let us suppole Motion eternal too, yet Matter, Incogitative Matter and Motion could never produce Thought: Know. ludge will still be as far beyond the power of motion and matter to produce, as matter is beyond the power of Nothing to produce. Divide matter into as mitute parts as you will, vary the figure and motion of i, as much as you please, it will operate no othervile upon other Bodies of proportionable bulk, than tdid before this division. The minutest particles of Matter, knock, impel, and resist one another, just the greater do, and that is all they can do, so that we will suppose Nothing Eternal, Matter can never igin to be. If we suppose bare Matter without Molon Eternal, Motion can never begin to be. It we appose only Matter and Motion Eternal, Thought un never begin to be: For it is impossible to conleve, that Matter, either with or without Motion, R could

could have originally in and from itself, Sense, Perception, and Knowledge, as is evident from hence that then Sense, Perception, and Knowledge, must be a Property eternally inseparable from Matter, and every particle of it. Since therefore whatsoever is the first eternal being, must necessarily be Cogitative And whatsoever is first of all things, must necessarily contain in it, and actually have, at least, all the perfections that can ever after exist, it necessarily follows that the First Eternal Being cannot be Matter.

§ 9 If therefore it be evident that something no coffarily must exist from Eternity, it is also as eviden that, that Something must inecessarily be a cogitative Being. For it is as impossible that incogitative Matter should produce a cogitative Being, as that no thing, or the negation of all Being, should produce a positive Being or Matter.

And therefore if he made those, he made a fo the less excellent pieces of this Universe, all inau mate Bodies, whereby his Omniscience, Power, and Prvidence will be established; and from thence all to other attributes necessarily follow.

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CHAP. XI.

Of our Knowledge of the Existence of other Things.

Enifering things I thank us, we have one

THE Knowledge of our own Being we have by Intuition: The Existence of a God, Reason dearly makes known to us, as has been shown: The Knowledge of the Existence of any other thing, we can have only by Sensation; for their being no neceffary Connexion of real Existence with any idea a man hath in his memory; nor of any other Existence, but that of God, with the Existence of any particuar man; no particular man can know the Existence of any other Being, but only, when by actually operating upon him, it makes itself be perceived by him. The having the idea of any thing in our mind, no more proves the Existence of that thing, than the picture of a man evidences his being in the world, or the visions of a dream, make thereby a true hiftory. It is therefore the actual receiving of ideas from without, that gives us notice of the Existence of other things, and makes us know that fomething doth exist at that time without us, which causes that idea in us, though perhaps we peither know nor conlider how it does it; for it takes not from the Gertainty of our Senfes, and the ideas we receive by them, that we know not the manner wherein they are produced, and administration up a best contract and contract

§ 2. This Notice we have by our Senses of the exsting of things without us, though it be not altoge-

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ther fo certain as Intuition and Demonstration, deserve the name of Knowledge, if we persuade outselves that our faculties act and inform us right, concerning the Existence of those objects that affect them. But be fides the afforance we have from our Senses themselves that they do not err in the Information they give us of the Existence of things without us, we have other concurrent Reasons, As,

§ 3. First, It is plain those Perceptions are produced in us, by exterior Caufes affecting our fenfes because those that want the Organs of any sense, never can have the ideas belonging to that sense produced in their minds. This is too evident to be doubted, and therefore we cannot but be affured, that they come in by the Organs of that Sense, and no other way.

§ 4. Secondly, Because we find fometimes that w cannot avoid the having those ideas produced in our minds; when my eyes are flut, I can at pleasure re cal to my mind the ideas of Light or the Sun, which former Senfations had lodged in my memory; but i I turn my eyes towards the Sun, I cannot avoid the ideas which the Light or the Sun then produces is me: Which shows a manifest difference between those ideas laid up in the memory, and fuch as force them felves upon us, and we cannot avoid having. An therefore it must needs be some exterior cause, who efficacy I cannot refift, that produces those ideas my mind, whether I will or no.

Besides, there is no body who doth not perceiv the difference in himself, between actually looking upon the Sun, and contemplating the idea he has it in his memory; and therefore he hath certa Knowledg

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Knowledge, that they are not both memory or fancy; but that actual Seeing has a cause without.

s. Thirdly, Add to this, that many ideas are produced in us with pain, which we afterwards remember without the least offence. Thus the pain of Heat or Cold, when the idea of it is received in our minds, gives us no disturbance; which when felt was very moublesome; and we remember the pain of Hunger, Thirst, Head Ache, &c. without any pain at all; which would either never disturb us, or else constantly do it, as often as we thought of it, were there nothing more but ideas stoating in our minds, and appearances entertaining our fancies, without the real Existence of things affecting us from abroad.

§ 6. Fourthly, Our fenses in many cases bear witness to the truth of each others report, concerning the Existence of sensible things without us: He that doubts when he sees a Fire, whether it be real, may, if he please, feel it too; and, by the exquisite pain, he will be convinced, that it is not a bare idea or thantom.

§ 7. If after all this, any one will be so sceptical, as to distrust his senses, and to question the Existence of all things, or our Knowledge of any thing; let him consider that the Certainty of things existing in rerum natura, when we have the testimony of our senses for it, is not only as great as our frame can attain to, but as our condition needs. For our faculties being not suited to the full Extent of Being, nor a clear comprehensive knowledge of all things, but to the preservation of us, in whom they are, and accommodated to the use of life; they serve our purpose well mough, if they will but give us certain notice of those

those things, that are convenient or inconvenient to us. For he that sees a Candle burning, and has experimented the force of the slame, by putting his singer in it, will little doubt, that this is something existing without him, which does him harm and puts him to pain, which is assurance enough; when no man requires greater certainty to govern his actions by, than what is as certain as his actions themselves: So that this evidence is as great as we can desire, being as certain to us as our pleasure or pain, that is, Happiness or Milery, beyond which we have no concernment either of Knowing, or Being.

§ 8. In fine when our fenses do actually convey into our Understandings any idea, we are assured that there is something at that time really Existing without us. But this Knowledge extends only as far as the present testimony of our senses, employed about particular Objects, that do then affect them, and no farther. My seeing a Man a minute since, is no certain argument of his present Existence; since there is no necessary connexion of his existence a minute since with his existence now.

§ 9. As when our fenses are actually employed a bout any Object, we know that it does exist; so by our memory we may be affured, that heretofore thing that affected our senses, have existed: And thus we have the Knowledge of the past Existence of severathings; whereof our senses having informed us, ou memories still retain the ideas: And of this we are past all doubt, so long as we remember well.

§ 10. As to the Existence of spirits, our havin ideas of them, does not make us know, that any such things do exist without us; or that there are any f

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the spirits; or any other spiritual beings but the Eternal God. We have ground from Revelation, and
several other reasons, to believe with assurance, that
there are such Creatures: But our senses not being
able to discover them, we want the means of knowing their particular Existence; for we can no more
know that there are finite spirits really existing, by
the idea we have of such beings, than by the ideas
any one has of Fairies or Gentaurs, he can come to
know that things answering those ideas, do really
exist.

first of Propositions, One concerning the Existence of my thing answerable to such an idea; as that of an Elephant, Phænix, Motion, or Angel, viz. Whether such a thing does any where exist: And this Know-ledge is only of Particulars, and not to be had of any thing without us, but only of God, any other way than by our fenses.

Another fort of Proposition is, wherein is expressed the agreement or disagreement of our abstract ideas, and their dependence one on another. And these may be universal and certain: So having the idea of God, and my self, of Fear and Obedience, I cannot but be sure that God is to be feared and obeyed by me; and this Proposition will be certain concerning Man in general; if I have made an abstract idea of such a species, whereof I am one particular. But such a Proposition, how certain soever, proves not to me the Existence of men in the world; but will be true of all such Creatures, whenever they do exist: Which Gertainty of such general Propositions, depends

abstract ideas.

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§ 13. In the former case, our Knowledge is the consequence of the Existence of things, producing ideas in our minds by our fenses: In the latter, the consequence of the ideas that are in our minds, and producing these general Propositions, many whereo are called Eternæ veritates; and all of them indeed are fo, not from being written all, or any of them in the minds of all men, or that they were any of then Propositions in any one's mind, till he having got the abstract ideas, joined or separated them by affirmation or negation: But wherefoever we can suppose such Creature as Man is, endowed with fuch faculties, and thereby furnished with such ideas as we have ; w must conclude, he must needs, when he applies hi thoughts to the confideration of his ideas, know th truth of certain Propositions, that will arise from th agreement or disagreement he will perceive in his owl ideas. Such Propositions being once made about ab Braet ideas, fo as to be true, they will, whenever the can be supposed to be made again, at any time past or to come, by a mind having those ideas, always b true. For names being supposed to stand perpetual ly for the fame ideas; and the fame ideas having in mutably the same habitudes one to another; Propo fitions concerning any abstract ideas that are one true, must needs be eternal Verities.

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CHAP. XII.

Of the Improvement of our Knowledge.

IT being the received opinion amongst men of letters that maxims are the foundations of all Knowlige, and that Sciences are each of them built upon rtain Pracognita, from whence the Understanding us to take its rife, and by which it was to conduct felf in its inquiries in the matters belonging to that hence, the beaten road of the schools has been to lay own in the beginning one or more general Proposions, called Principles, as foundations whereon to wild the Knowledge, that was to be had of that ubject.

1 2. That which gave occasion to this way of proeding, was, I suppose, the good success it seemed to ave in Mathematicks, which, of all other sciences, we the greatest certainty, clearness, and evidence, in em. But if we consider it, we shall find that the teat advancement and certainty of real Knowledge arrived to in these sciences, was not owing to the suence of these Principles, but to the clear distinct ad compleat ideas their thoughts were employed a. out; and the relation of Equality and Excess, so clear tween some of them, that they had an intuitive howledge; and by that away to discover it in others: and this without the help of those maxims. For I Is it not possible for a lad to know that his whole dy is bigger than his little finger, but by virtue of

this

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this Axiom, the whole is bigger than the part; no be affured of it, till he has learned that maxim? Leany one confider from what has been e sewhere said which is known first and clearest by most people, the particular instance, or the general rule; and which it is that gives life and birth to the other. The general rules are but the comparing our more general and abstract ideas, which ideas are made by the mine and have names given them, for the easier dispate in its reasonings: But Knowledge began in the mine and was founded on Particulars, though afterward perhaps no notice be taken thereof: It being nature for the mind, to lay up those general notions, and make the proper use of them, which is to disburde the memory of the cumbersome load of Particulars.

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S 3. The way to improve in Knowledge, is not to fwallow Principles, with an Implicit Faith, and with cut Examination, which would be apt to miles men, instead of guiding them into truth; but to get and fix in our minds, clear and compleat ideas, for as they are to be had, and annex to them proposed and constant names: And thus barely by considering our ideas, and comparing them together, observing the agreement or disagreement, their habitudes and relations, we shall get more true and clear Knowledge by the conduct of this one Rule, than by taking the Principles, and thereby putting our minds into the disposal of others.

§ 4. 'False or doubtsul positions, relied upon

unquestionable Maxims, keep those in the da

from truth, who build on them. Such are usua

by the Prejudices imbibed from education, part

reverence, fashion, interest, &c. This is the mo

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which every one fees in his brother's eye, but never regards the beam in his own. To those who are willing to get rid of this great hinderance of Knowledge, to these who would shake off this great and dangerous impostor Prejudice, who drefles up falsehood in the likeness of truth, I shall offer this one mark whereby Prejudice may known. He that is strongly of any opinion, must suppose that his persuasion is built upon good grounds; and that his affent is no greater than what the evidence of the truth he holds forces him Now if, after all his profession, he cannot bear any opposition to his opinion, if he cannot fo much as give a patient hearing to the arguments on the other side, he plainly confesses that it is Prejudice governs him; and it is not the evidence of truth, but some lazy anticipation, some beloved presumption, that he desires to rest undisturbed in *. § 5. ' He that would acquit himself in this case as a lover of truth, must do two things that are not very common nor very easy; First, He must not be in love with any opinion, or wish it to be true, until he knows it to be fo: For nothing that is false can deserve our good wishes, nor a desire that it should have the force of truth; and yet nothing is more frequent than this. Secondly, He must do that which he will find himself very averse to, as judging the thing unnecessary, or himself-incapable of doing it. He must try whether his principles be certainly true or not, and how far he may fafely rely upon them. The inability I here speak of, is not

Licke's Conduct of the Understanding, § 10.

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any natural defect that makes men incapable of examining their principles. To fuch, rules of con

ducting their understandings are useless, and the

is the case of very few. The great number is of these whom the ill habit of never exerting the

thoughts has disabled: The powers of their mind

are starved by disuse, and have lost that strengt which nature fitted them to receive from exercise

' In these two things, viz. an equal indifferency for a

truth; I mean the receiving it in the love of it a

truth; and in the examination of our principle, and not receiving any for such, till we are full

convinced of their folidity, truth and certainty

consists that freedom of the understanding, which is necessary to a rational creature; and without

which it is Conceit, Fancy, any thing rather than a

Understanding. And these two articles ought to

be particularly inculcated in education; the busines

whereof, in respect of knowledge, is not to perfect

a learner in all or any one of the Sciences, but t

give his mind that freedom, that disposition, and

these habits, that may enable him to attain a ny part of knowledge he shall apply himself to

or fland in need of in the future course of h

· life *."

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S 6. We must therefore, if we will proceed as Reason advises, adapt our methods of Inquiry, to the nature of the ideas we examine, and the truth we search after. General and certain Truths, are only sounded in the habitudes and relations of abstract idea. Therefore a sagacious methodical application of our

Locke's Conduct of the Understanding, § 11. and 12.

houghts for the finding out these Relations, is the only way to discover all that can with Truth and Certainty be put into general Propositions. By what teps we are to proceed in thefe, is to be learned in he schools of the Mathematicians, who from very plain and easy beginnings, by gentle degrees, and a ontinued chain of Reasonings, proceed to the discoery and demonstration of Truths, that appear at first ight beyond human Capacity. This, I think I may ly, that if other ideas that are real as well as noinal Essences of their species, were pursued in the vay familiar to Mathematicians, they would caryour thoughts farther and with greater Evidence nd Clearness, than possibly we are apt to imagine. This gave me the Confidence to advance that Conthure, which I suggest, Chapter the Third, viz. hat Morality is capable of Demonstration, as well as Mathematicks: For moral ideas being real Essences, hat have a discoverable Connexion and Agreement me with another, so far as we can find their Habiides and Relations, so far we shall be possessed of mal and general Truths.

occed after a quite different method: The bare lontemplation of their abstract ideas (which are but minal Essences) will carry us but a very little way, the search of Truth and Certainty. Here Experience must teach us what Reason cannot: And it is trying alone, that we can certainly know, what ther Qualities coexist with those of our complex idea; for instance) Whether that Yellow heavy susible Body, call Gold, be malleable, or no; which Experience lowever it prove in that particular body we exa-

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mine) makes us not certain that it is fo in all, or any other yellow, heavy, fusible Bodies, but that which we have tried; because it is no consequence one way or the other from our complex idea: The necessity of inconfishence of Malleability, has no visible Connexis on with the combination of that Colour, Weight, and Fusibility in any Body. What I have here faid o the nominal Effence of Gold, supposed to confist o a Body of fuch a determinate Colour, Weight, and Fu fibility, will hold true, if other Qualities be added to it. Our reasonings from those ideas will carry ns but a little way in the certain Dilgovery of the o ther Properties, in those Masses of Matter wherein al those are to be found. As far as our Experience reaches, we may have certain knowledge, and no farther.

§ 8. I deny not, but a man accustomed to rational and regular Experiments, shall be able to see far ther into the nature of Bodies, and their unknown Properties, than one that is a stranger to them. But this is but Judgment and Opinion, not Knowledge and Certainty. This makes me suspect that Natural Philosophy is not capable of being made a science: From Experiments and historical Observations we may draw Advantages of Ease and Health, and thereby increase our stock of Conveniences for this Life: But beyon this, I fear our Talents reach not; nor are our faculties, as I guess, able to advance.

fince our faculties are not fitted to penetrate the re-Effences of Bodies, but yet plainly to discover to the Being of a God, and the Knowledge of ourselves enough to give us a clear Discovery of our Duty, as

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rest Concernment; it will become us, as rational Creatures, to employ our Faculties about what they re most adapted to, and follow the Direction of Nawre, where it feems to point us out the way. For is rational to conclude, that our proper Employment lies in those Inquiries, and that fort of Knowledge which is most fuited to our natural Capacities. and carries in it our greatest interest, that is, the conution of our eternal State : And therefore it is, I think, that morality is the proper science and business of manand in general (who are both concerned and fitted to karch out their Summum Bonum) as several Arts conresant about the several parts of nature, are the lot and private talent of particular men, for the common ne of human life, and their own particular Subfistence in this World.

s we are capable, seem to me to be these two: The sirst, is to get and settle in our minds, as far as we can, clear, distinct, and constant ideas of those things we would consider and know. For it being evident that our Knowledge cannot exceed our ideas; where they are either imperfect, consused, or obscure, we cannot expect to have certain, perfect, or clear Knowledge. The other is the art of sinding out the intermediate ideas, which may show us the Agreement or Repugnancy of other ideas, which cannot be immediately compared.

It. That these two (and not the relying on mixims, and drawing consequences from some general Propositions), are the right method of improving we Knowledge, in the ideas of other modes, besides tose of Quantity, the Consideration of mathematical Knowledge

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Knowledge will eafily inform us. Where, First, we shall find that he that has not clear and perfect ideas of those Angles or Figures, of which he desires to know any thing, is utterly thereby incapable of any Knowledge about them. Suppose a man not to have an exact idea of a right Angle, Scalenum, or Trapezium, and it is clear, that he will in vain feek any Demonstration about them. And farther it is evident, that it was not the influence of maxims or principles that has led the masters of this Science into those wonderful Discoveries they have made. Let a man of good parts know all the maxims of Mathematick never fo well, and contemplate their Extent and Consequences as much as he pleases, he will by their as fishance, I suppose, scarce ever come to know, that the square of the Hypotenuse, in a right angled Tri angle, is equal to the squares of the two other sides This, and other mathematical Truths have been diff covered by the Thoughts, otherwise applied. mind had other objects, other views before it, far different from those maxims which men well enough acquainted with those received Axioms, but ignoran of their method, who first made these Demonstrati ons, can never fufficiently admire.

CHAP. XIII.

Bome further Considerations concerning Knowledge.

§ 1.

Our Knowledge, as in other things, so in this, he a great Conformity with our fight, that it is no ther wholly necessary, nor wholly voluntary. Men the

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have fenses cannot chuse but receive some ideas by hem; and if they have memory, they cannot but reain some of them; and if they have any distinguishing Faculty, cannot but perceive the Agreement or Disagreement of some of them, one with another. As he that has Eyes, if he will open them by day, annot but see some Objects, and perceive a difference in them; yet he may chuse whether he will turn his Eyes towards an Object, curiously survey it, and observe accurately all that is visible in it. But what le does fee, he cannot fee otherwise than he does: It depends not on his Will, to see that Black which ppears Yellow. Just thus it is with our Understanding: All that is voluntary in our Knowledge, is the mploying or withholding any of our Faculties from his or that fort of Objects; and a more or less acmrate Survey of them: But they being employed, ur Will hath no power to determine the Knowledge of he mind, one way or other. That is done only by he Objects themselves, as far as they are clearly discovered.

Index and hath taken the pains to compare One, Two and Three, to Six, cannot chuse but know that they are equal. He also that both the idea of an intelligent, but weak and frail Being, made by, and depending on another, who is Eternal, Omnipotent, perfectly wise and good, will as certainly know, that man is to homour, fear, and obey God, as that the Sun shines when he sees it. But yet these Truths, being never so certain, never so clear, he may be ignorant of either or both of them, who will not take the pains to employ

214 An ABRIDGMENT of Book IV ploy his Faculties as he should, to inform himself about them.

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CHAP. XIV.

Of Judgment.

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The Understanding Faculties being given to mannot barely for Speculation, but also for the Conduct of his Life; a man would be at a great loss if he had nothing to direct him but what has the Certainty of true Knowledge. He that will not eat till he has Demonstration that it will nourish him; nor flir, till he is infallibly assured of success in his business, will have little else to do but sit still and perish.

broad Day-light; as he has given us some certain Knowledge, though limited to a few things, in comparison, (probably as a taste of what intellectual creatures are capable of, to excite in us a desire and endeavour after a better State) so in the greatest part of our Concernment, he has afforded us only the Twilight, as I may so say, of Probability, suitable to that state of Mediocrity and Probationership, he has been pleased to place us in here.

§ 3. The Faculty which God has given man to enlighten him, next to certain Knowledge, is Judg ment whereby the mind takes its idea to agree of disagree, without perceiving a demonstrative Evidence in the Proofs. The mind exercises this Judgment

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metimes out of Necessity, where demonstrative proofs, and certain Knowledge are not to be had; and sometimes out of Laziness, Unskilfulness, or Haste, wen where they are to be had.

§ 4. This Faculty of the Mind when it is exercifed immediately about things, is called Judgment; when about truths delivered in words, is most commonly called Assent, or Dissent. Thus the mind has two Faculties conversant about Truth and Fassehood: if, Knowledge, whereby it certainly perceives, and is indoubtedly satisfied of the Agreement or Disagreement of any ideas. 2 dly, Judgment, which is the putting ideas together, or separating them from one mother in the mind, when their certain Agreement or Disagreement is not perceived, but presumed to be a And if it so unites or separates them, as in reality things are, it is right Judgment.

CHAP. XV.

Of Probability.

§ 1.

DROBABILITY is nothing but the appearance of the Agreement or Disagreement of two ideas, by the Intervention of Proofs, whose Connexion is not constant, and immutable; or is not perceived to the soil of the soil of the most part to be so, and is enough to induce the mind to judge the Promonths of the soil of the so

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down to Improbability and Unlikeliness, even to the confines of Impossibility: And also degrees of Assen from certain Knowledge and what is next it, full Assurance and Considence, quite down to Conjecture, Doubt Distrust, and Disbelief.

S 3. That Proposition then is probable, for which there are arguments or proofs to make it pass, or be received for true. The Entertainment the mind give to this fort of Propositions, is called Belief, Assent or Opinion Probability then being to supply the defect of our Knowledge, is always conversant about Propositions, whereof we have no Certainty, but on by some Indusements to receive them for true.

§ 4. The Grounds of it are in short these two following.

First, The Conformity of any thing with our ow Knowledge, Experience, or Observation.

Observation and Experience. In the Testimony of others, is to be considered; Lst, The Number; 2dly The Integrity; 3dly, The Skill of the Witnesses 4thly, The Design of the Author, if it be a Testimony cited out of a Book; 5thly, The Consistence of the Parts and Circumstances of the Relation; 6thly Contrary Testimonies.

§ 5. The mind before it rationally affents or dissent to any probable Proposition, ought to examine all the grounds of Probability, and see how they make, more or less, for or against it; and upon, a due balancing of the whole, reject or receive it, with a more or less firm Assent, according to the Preponderancy of the greater Grounds of Probability, on one side or the other.

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CHAP. XVI.

Of the Degrees of Affent.

THE Grounds of Probability laid down in the foregoing Chapter, as they are the foundations on thich our Affent is built, so are they also the meaire whereby its feveral Degrees are (or ought) to be gulated. Only we are to take notice, that no rounds of Probability operate any farther on the ind, which fearches after Truth, and endeavours to adge right, than they appear; at least in the first adgment, or Search that the mind makes. deed in many cases impossible, and in most very ard, even for those who have admirable memories, retain all the Proofs, which, upon a due Examinaon, made them embrace that fide of the question. fuffices that they have once, with care and fairness, feed the matter as far as they could; and having ace found on which side the Probability appeared to hem, they lay up the Conclusion in their memories, a Truth they have discovered; and for the future main satisfied with the Testimony of their memois, that this is the Opinion, that by the Proofs by have once feen of it, deserves such a Degree of beir Assent as they afford it.

§ 2. It is unavoidable then that the memory be red on in this case, and that men be persuaded of senal Opinions, whereof the Proofs are not actually in ir thoughts, nay, which perhaps they are not able actually

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men, must be either Scepticks, or change every ment, when any one offers them arguments, which for want of memory, they are not presently able to answer.

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§ 3. It must be owned that mens sticking to pa Judgments, is often the cause of great Obstinacy Error and Mistake. But the fault is not, that the rely on their memories for what they have before well judged, but because they judged before they ha Who almost is there that hath the well examined. Leisure, Patience, and Means to collect together, a the Proofs concerning most of the Opinions he ha fo as fafely to conclude that he has a clear and fu view, and that there is no more to be alledged for his better Information? And yet we are forced to d termine ourselves on one side or other: The condu of our Lives, and the management of our gre Concerns, will not bear Delay. For those depen for the most part on the determination of our Judg ment in points wherein we are not capable of certa Knowledge, and wherein it is necessary for us to en brace one fide or the other.

S 4. The Propositions we receive upon induce ments of Probability, are of two forts: First, Concerning some particular Existence, or matter of Fall which falling under Observation, is capable of huma Testimony. Secondly, Concerning things, which be ing beyond the discovery of our Senses, are not on public of human Testimony.

§ 5. Concerning the first of these, viz Partic

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First, Where any particular thing, consonant to the constant Observation of ourselves and others in the like case, comes attested with the concurrent Reports of all that mention it, we receive it as easily, and build as firmly upon it, as if it were certain knowledge. Thus, if all Englishmen who have octasion to mention it, should report, that it froze in Ingland last Winter, or the like, I think a man would as little doubt of it, as that Seven and Four the Eleven.

The first and highest Degree of Probability then when the general confent of all men, in all ages, sfar as can be known, concurs with a man's own unstant Experience in the like cases, to confirm the with of any particular matter of Fact, attested by ir Witnesses: Such are the stated Constitutions and Properties of Bodies, and the regular Proceedings of lauses and Effects in the ordinary course of Nature; his we call an Argument from the nature of things hemselves. For what we and others always observe be after the same manner, we conclude with Reain, to be the effects of steady and regular Causes, bough they come not within the reach of our Knowedge. As that Fre warmed a man, or made Lead hid; that Iron funk in water, fwam in quick filver. relation affirming any fuch thing to have been, or a redication that it will happen again in the same maner, is received without doubt or hesitation: And or Belief thus grounded, rises to Assurance.

§ 6. Secondly, The next degree of Probability, is then, by my own Experience, and the agreement of others, that mention it, a thing is found to be for the most part so; and that the particular instance of

it

it is attested by many and undoubted witnesses. Thu History giving us such an account of men in all ages and my own Experience confirming it, that most me prefer their own private Advantage, to the publick If all Historians that writ of Tiberius, fay that he di fo, it is extremely probable: And in this cafe, ou Affent rifes to a degree which we may call Confidence

§ 7. Thirdly, In matters happening indifferently as that a Bird should fly this or that way: When ny particular matter of Fact comes attested by th concurrent Testimony of unsuspected Witnesses, ther our Affent is also unavoidable. Thus, that there in Italy fuch a city as Rome; that about One thousan and seven hundred years ago, there lived such a ma in it as Julius Cafar, &c. A man can as little doub of this, and the like, as he does of the Being an Actions of his own Acquaintance, whereof he him felf is a witness.

§ 8. Probality, on these grounds, carries so much Evidence with it, that it leaves as little liberty to be lieve or disbelieve, as Demonstration does, whether we will know or be ignorant. But the Difficulty i when Testimonies contradict common Experience and the Reports of Witnesses clash with the ordinar course of Nature, or with one another. Here dil gence, attention, and exactness is required to form right Judgment, and to proportion the Affent to the Evidence and Probability of the thing, which rifes an falls, according as the two foundations of Credibili favour, or contradict it. These are liable to suc variety of contrary Observations, Circumstances, R ports, Tempers, Designs, Oversights, &r. of Repor ers, that it is impossible to reduce to precise rul

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the various degrees wherein men give their Assent. This in general may be said, that as the Proofs, upon the Examination, shall to any one appear in a greater, or less degree, to preponderate on either side, so they are sitted to produce in the mind, such different states are called Belief, Conjecture, Guess, Doubt, Wavering, Distrust, Disbelief, &c.

§ 9. I think it may not be amiss to take notice of a rule observed in the law of England, which is, that though the attested copy of a record be good proof, yet the copy of a copy never fo well attested, and by never so credible witnesses, will not be admitted as a proof in judicature. This practice, if it be allowable in the decisions of right and wrong, carries this observation along with it,' viz. That any Testimony, the farther off it is removed from the original truth, the less force it has: And in raditional truths, each remove weakens the force of the Proof. There is a Rule quite contrary to this, adanced by some men, who look on Opinions to gain bree by growing older. Upon this ground, Propohions evidently false or doubtful in their first begining, come by an inverted Rule of Probability, to pass br authencick Truths; and those which deserved litthe Credit from the mouths of their first Relators, re thought to grow venerable by Age, and are urred as undeniable.

§ 10 But certain it is, that no Probability can the above its first Original. What has no other evidence than the single Testimony of one Witness, must and or fall by his only Testimony, though afterwards cited by Hundreds of others; and is so far ton receiving any strength thereby, that it becomes

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the weaker. Because Passion, Interest, Inadvertency Mistake of his Meaning, and a thousand odd Reasons which capricious mens minds are acted by, may mak one man quote another's words or meaning wrong This is certain, that what in one age was affirme upon slight grounds, can never after come to be mor valid in future ages by being often repeated.

§ 11. The second fort of Probability, is concerning things not falling under the reach of our senses, and therefore not capable of Testimony: And such are,

§ 12. First, The Existence, Nature, and Operations of finite immaterial Beings without us, as Spirits, Angels, &c. or the Existence of material Beings, such as for their smallness or remoteness, or Senses cannot take notice of: As whether there be any Plants, Animals, &c. in the Planets, and othe mansions of the vast Universe.

\$ 12. Secondly, Concerning the manner of Op ration in most parts of the works of Nature; when in, though we fee the fensible Effects, yet their Car fes are unknown, and we perceive not the ways at manner how they are produced. We see Anima are generated, nourished, and move; the Loadsto draws Irin, &c. but the causes that operate, and t manner they are produced in, we can only guels, a probably conjecture. In these matters Analogy is t only help we have; and it is from that alone draw all our grounds of Probability. Thus obser ing, that the bare rubbing of two Bodies violen upon one another, produces Heat, and very of Fire; we have reason to think that what we Heat and Fire, consists, in a certain violent agitati of the imperceptible minute parts of the burni Matt

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ourni Matt Matter. This fort of Probability, which is the best conduct of rational Experiments, and the rise of Hypotheses, has also its use and influence. And a wary reasoning from Analogy leads us often into the discourt of Truths, and useful Deductions, which would otherwise lie concealed.

ordinary course of things, have a mighty instruence on the minds of men, to make them give or resuse tredit, to any thing proposed to their belief; yet there is one case wherein the strangeness of the sact lessens not the Assent to a sair Testimony given of it. For where such supernatural Events are suitable to ends aimed at by him, who has the power to change the course of Nature; there under such circumstances they may be the fitter to procure belief, by how much the more they are beyond, or contrary to ordinary observation. This is the proper case of miracles, which, well attested, do not only find credit themselves, but give it also to other truths.

S 15. There are Propositions that challenge the highest degree of our Assent upon bare Testimony, whether the thing proposed agree or disagree withcommon Experience, and the ordinary course of things or no: The reason whereof is, because the Testimony is of such an one, as cannot deceive nor be deceived; and that is God himself. This carries with it Certainty beyond Doubt, Evidence beyond Exception. This is called by a peculiar name, Revelation, and our assent to it, Faith; which has as much Certainty in it, as our Knowledge itself: and we may as well doubt of our own Being, as we can, whether any Revelation from God be true. So that Faith is

a settled and sure Principle of Assent and Assurance, and leaves no Manner of Room for Doubt or Hesitation; only we must be sure, that it be a divine Revelation, and that we understand it right; else we shall expose ourselves to all the extravagancy of Enthuasim, and all the error of wrong Principles, if we have Faith and Assurance in what is not divine Revelation.

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CHAP. XVII.

Of Reason.

§ 1.

THE word Reason, in English, has different Significations. Sometimes it is taken for true and clear Principles: Sometimes for clear and fair Deductions from those Principles: Sometimes for the Cause and particularly for the final Cause; but the Consideration I shall have of it here, is, as it stands for a Faculty, whereby Man is supposed to be distinguished from Beasts; and wherein it is evident, he much surpasses them.

of our Knowledge, and regulating our Assent: For it hath to do both in Knowledge and Opinion, and is necessary and assisting to all our other intellectual Faculties; and, indeed, contains two of them, viz. First Sagacity, whereby it finds intermediate ideas. Secondly, Illation, whereby it so orders and disposes of them, as to discover what connexion there is in each link of the Chain, whereby the extremes are held to gether

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each to ther gether, and thereby, as it were, to draw into view the Truth sought for; which is that we call Illation or Inference: And consists in nothing, but the Perception of the Connexion there is between the ideas, in each step of the Deduction, whereby the mind comes to see, either the certain agreement or disagreement of any two ideas, as in Demonstration, in which it arrives at Knowledge: Or their probable Connexion, on which it gives or with holds its Assent, as in Opinion.

§ 3. Sense and Intuition reach but a little way: The greatest part of our Knowledge depends upon In those cases Deductions and intermediate ideas. where we must take Propositions for true, without being certain of their being fo, we have need to find out, examine, and compare the grounds of their Probability: In both cases, the faculty which finds out the means, and rightly applies them to discover Certainty in the one, and Probability in the other, is that which we call Reason. So that in Reason we may consider these four Degrees; 1st, The discovering and finding out of Proofs. 2dly, The regular and methodical Disposition of them, and laying them in such order, as their Connexion may be plainly per-3dly, The perceiving their Connexion, 4thly, The making a right Conclusion.

§ 4. There is one thing more which I shall desire to be considered concerning Reason, and that is, whether Syllogism, as is generally thought, be the proper instrument of it; and the usefullest way of exercing this faculty. The Causes I have to doubt of it,

ue these.

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§ 5. First, Because Syllogism serves our Reason but in one only of the forementioned parts of it, and that is to show the Connexion of the Proofs of any one Instance, and no more: But in this it is of no great use, fince the mind can perceive such Connexion, where it really is, as eafily, nay, perhaps better without it. We may observe that there are many men that reason exceeding clear and rightly, who know not how to make a Syllogifm: And I believe scarce any one makes Syllogisms in reasoning within Indeed, sometimes they may serve to discover a fallacy, hid in a rhetorical Flourish; or by stripping an absurdity of the cover of Wit and good Language, show it in its naked Deformity. Weakness or Fallacy of such a loose Discourse it shows, by the artificial form it is put into, only to those who have thoroughly studied Mode and Figure, and have fo examined the many ways, that three Propositions may be put together, as to know which of them does certainly conclude right, and which not, and upon what grounds it is that they do fo. But they who have not fo far looked into those forms, are not fure by virtue of Syllogifm that the Conclusion certainly follows from the Premifes. The mind is not taught to reason by these Rules; it has a native faculty to perceive the Coherence of Incoherence of its ideas, and can range them right, without any fuch perplexing Repetitions.

\$ 6 And to show the weakness of an argument, there needs no more but to strip it of the superfluous ideas, which, blended and confounded with those or which the Inference depends, seem to show a Connexion where there is none, or at least do hinder the

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Discovery of the want of it; and then to lay the naked ideas on which the force of the Argumentation depends in their due order; in which position the mind taking a view of them, sees what Connexion they have, and so is able to judge of the Inserence without any need of Syllogism at all.

§ 7. Secondly, Because Syllogisms are not less liable to Fallacies than the plainer ways of Argumentation: And for this I appeal to common Observation, which has always found these artificial methods of Reasoning more adapted to catch and entangle the mind, than to instruct and inform the Understanding. And if it be certain that Fallacy can be couched in Syllogisms, as r cannot be denied, it must be something elfe, and not Syllogism, that must discover them. But if men skilled in, and used to Syllogisms, find them affifting to their Reason, in the Discovery of Truth, I think they ought to make use of them. All that I aim at is, that they should not ascribe more to these Forms than belongs to them; and think that men have no use, or not so full a use of their reasoning faculty without them.

§ 8. But however it be in Knowledge, I think it is of far less or no use at all in *Probabilities*: For the Assent there being to be determined by the Preponderancy, after a due weighing of all the Proofs on both sides, nothing is so unfit to assist the mind in that, as Syllogism; which running away with one assumed Probability, pursues that till it has led the mind quite out of sight of the thing under consideration,

§ 9. But let it help us (as perhaps may be faid) in mivincing men of their errors or mistakes; yet still it fails

fails our reason in that part, which, if not its highest perfection, is yet certainly its hardest task; and that which we most need its help in, and that is, The finding out of Proofs, and making new Discoveries. This way of Reasoning discovers no new Proofs, but is the art of marshalling and ranging the old ones we have already. A man knows first, and then he is able to prove fyllogiftically; fo that Syllogifm comes after Knowledge; and then a man has little or no need of it. But it is chiefly by the finding out those ideas that show the Connexion of distant ones, the our stock of Knowledge is increased; and that useful arts and sciences are advanced.

§ 10. ' It is fit, before I leave this subject, to take notice of one manifest mistake in the rules of Syllogifm, viz. That no fyllogiftical reasoning can be right and conclusive, but what has, at least, one general proposition in it. As if we could not rea fon about particulars. Whereas, in truth, the immediate object of all our reasoning, is nothing but particulars. Every man's reasoning is only about

the ideas existing in his own mind, which are truly every one of them particular existences; and ou

reasoning about other things, is only as they cor

respond with those our particular ideas.'

§ 11. Reason, though of a very large extent fail us in feveral Inflances: As, 1A, Where our ideas fail 2dly, It is often at a lofs, because of the Obscurity Confusion, or Imperfection of the ideas it is employed a Thus having no perfect idea of the least Ex tension of matter, nor of Infinity, we are at a lo about the divisibility of Matter. 3dly, Our Reaso is often at a stand, because it perceives not those idea

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idea vhic which would serve to shew the certain or probable agreement or disagreement of any two other ideas. 4thly, Our Reason is often engaged in absurdities and difficulties, by proceeding upon false Principles, which being followed, lead men into Contradictions to themselves, and Inconsistency in their own Thoughes. 5thly, Dubious words, and uncertain signs often puzzlemen's Reason, and bring them to a Nonplus.

§ 12. Though the deducing one Proposition from another be a great part of Reason, and that which it is usually employed about: Yet the principal act of Ratiocination is the finding the agreement or disagreement of two ideas one with another, by the intervention of a third. As a man, by a yard, finds two houses to be of the same length, which could not be brought together to measure their Equality by juxta position. Words have their consequences as the signs of such ideas: And things agree, or disagree, as really they are; but we observe it only by our ideas.

§ 13. In Reasoning men ordinarily use four sorts of Arguments.

The First, is to allege the Opinions of men, whose parts, learning, eminency, power, or some other cause, has gained a name, and settled their Reputation in the common esteem with some kind of Authority. This may be called Argumentum ad Vertecundiam.

Adversary to admit what they allege as a Proof, or to assign a better. This I call Argumentum ad Ignorantiam.

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§ 15. A Third way, is to press a man with con sequences drawn from his own Principles or Concessions. This is already known under the name of Argumentum ad hominem.

§ 16. Fourthly, the using of Proofs drawn from any of the foundations of Knowledge or Probability This I call Argumentum, ad Judicium. This alone of all the four, brings true Instruction with it, and advances us in our way to Knowledge. For 1A, 1 argues not another man's Opinion to be right, because I, out of respect, or any other consideration bu that of Conviction, will not contradict him. 2 div It proves not another man to be in the right way nor that I ought to take the fame with him, because I know not a better. adly, Nor does it follow, that another man is in the right way, because he has shown me that I am in the wrong. This may difpose me perhaps for the reception of truth, but help me not to it; that must come from Proofs and Arguments, and Light arising from the Nature of Thing themselves; not from my Shame facedness, Ignorance, or Error.

be able to make some guess at the distinction of things into those that are according to, above, and contrary to Reason. If, According to Reason, are such Propositions, whose truth we can discover, by examining and tracing those ideas we have from Sensation and Reflection, and by natural deduction find to be true or probable. 2dly, Above Reason, are such Propositions, whose Truth or Probability we cannot by Reason derive from those Principles. 3dly, Contrary to Reason, are such Propositions as are inconsistent with

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or irreconcileable to, our clear and distinct ideas. Thus the Existence of one God, is according to Reain: The Existence of more than one God, contrary to Reason: The Resurrection of the Body after death, above Reason. Above Reason, may be also taken in a double sense, viz. Above Probability, or, above Certainty. In that large sense also, Contrary to Reason, is I suppose, sometimes taken.

wherein it is opposed to Faith; which, though authorised by common use, yet is it in itself a very improper way of speaking: For Faith is nothing but a firm assent of the mind; which it it be regulated as is our duty, cannot be afforded to any thing but upon good Reason, and so cannot be opposite to it. He that believes without having any Reason for Believing, may be in love with his own fancies; but neither seeks Truth as he ought, nor pays the Obedience due to his Maker, who would have him use those discrining faculties he has given him, to keep him out of Mistake and Error. But since Reason and Faith are by some men opposed, we will so consider them in the following Chapter.

CHAP. XVIII.

Of Faith and Reason, and their distinct Provinces.

§ I.

REASON, as contradistinguished to Faith, I take to be the discovery of the Certainty or Prolability of such Propositions or Truths which the

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mind arrives at by deductions made from such ideas, which it has got by the use of its natural faculties, viz. by Sensation or Reflection.

Faith, on the other fide, is the affent to any Proposition, upon the credit of the proposer, as coming immediately from God; which we call Revelation:

Concerning which we must observe,

1 2. First, That no man inspired by God, can by any Revelation communicate to others, any new simple ideas, which they had not before from Sensation or Reflection: Because words, by their immediate operation on us, cannot cause other ideas, but of their natural founds, and as figns of latent ideas they can only recal to our Thoughts those ideas, which to us they have been wont to be figns of; but cannot introduce any new, and formerly unknown fimple ideas. The same holds in all other figns, which cannot fignify to us things, of which we have never before had any idea at all. For our fimple ideas we must depend wholly on our natural faculties, and can by no means receive them from traditional Revelation; I say traditional, in distinction to original Reve-By the one, I mean that impression which is made immediately by God on the mind of any man, to which we cannot fet any bounds. And by the other, those impressions delivered over to others in words, and the ordinary ways of conveying our Conceptions one to another.

§ 3. Secondly, I say, that the same Truths may be discovered by Revelation, which are discoverable to us by Reason; but in such there is little need or use of Revelation; God having surnished us with natural means to arrive at the Knowledge of them: And

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Truths discovered by our natural faculties, are more certain, than when conveyed to us by traditional Revelation. For the Knowledge we have, that this Revelation came at first from God, can never be so sure as the Knowledge we have from the clear and distinct Perception of the agreement and disagreement of our own ideas. This also holds in matters of fact, knowable by our fenses: As the history of the Dehuge is conveyed to us by Writings, which had their original from Revelation; and yet no body, I think, will fay he has as certain and clear Knowledge of the Flood, is Neah that faw it, or that he himself would have had, had he then been alive and feen it. has no greater Assurance, than that of his Senses, that it is writ in the Book, supposed to be writ by Moses inspired. But he has not so great an Assurance that Moses writ that Book, as if he had seen Moses write it; so that the Assurance of its being a Revelation, is fill less than the Assurance of his Senses.

§ 4. Revelation cannot be admitted against the clear evidence of Reason. For since no evidence of our faculties, by which we receive such a Revelation, can exceed, if equal, the Certainty of our intuitive Knowedge; we can never receive for a Truth any thing hat is directly contrary to our clear and distinct Know-Thus the ideas of one body and one place do ledge. clearly agree, that we can never assent to a Propolition that affirms the same body to be in two distinct laces at once; however, it should pretend to the aubority of a divine Revelation: Since the evidence. If, That we deceive not ourselves in ascribing it to and: Secondly, That we understand it right, can neher be so great as the evidence of our own intuitive

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Knowledge, whereby we discern it impossible for the Jame body to be in two places at once.

In Propositions therefore, contrary to our distinct and clear ideas, it will be in vain to urge them as matters of Faith. For Faith can never convince us of any thing that contradicts our Knowledge. Because, though Faith be founded upon the Testimony of God, who cannot lie, yet we cannot have an Affurance of the Truth of its being a divine Revelation, greater than our Knowledge. For if the mind of man can never have a clearer evidence of any thing to be a divine Revelation, than it has of the principles of its own Reason; it can never have a ground to quit the clear evidence of its Reason, to give place to a Proposition, whose Revelation has not a greater evidence than those principles have.

In all things therefore where we have clear evidence from our ideas, and the principles of Know ledge above-mentioned, Reason is the proper Judge and Revelation cannot in fuch cases invalidate its decrees; nor can we be obliged, where we have the clear and evident sentence of Reason, to quit it for the con trary Opinion, under a pretence that it is Matter of Faith, which can have no authority against the plain

and clear dictates of Reason.

§ 5. Thirdly, There being many things of which we have but imperfect notions, or none at all; and other things, of whose past, present, or future Ex istence, by the natural use of our faculties, we can have no Knowledge at all: These being beyond th discovery of our faculties, and above Reason, when re vealed, become the proper Matter of Faith. Thus that part of the angels rebelled against God; that th bodie

bodies of men shall rife and live again, and the like, are purely Matters of Faith, with which Reason has directly nothing to do.

First, then, Whatever Proposition is revealed, of whose truth our mind, by its natural faculties and notions cannot judge, that is purely Matter of Faith, and above Reason.

by its natural faculties, can come to determine and judge from natural acquired ideas, are Matter of Reafon; but with this difference; that in those concerning which it has but an uncertain evidence, and so is persuaded of their Truth only upon probable grounds: In such, I say, an evident Revelation ought to determine our Assent, even against Probability. Because the mind, not being certain of the Truth of that it does not evidently know, is bound to give up its Assent to such a Testimony, which it is satisfied comes from one, who cannot err, and will not deceive. But yet it still belongs to Reason to judge of the Truth of its being a Revelation, and of the Signification of the Words wherein it is delivered.

\$ 7. Thus far the dominion of Faith reaches; and that without any violence to Reason, which is not injured or disturbed, but assisted and improved by new discoveries of Truth, coming from the eternal Fountain of all Knowledge. Whatever God hath revealed is certainly true; no doubt can be made of it. This is the proper Object of Faith: But whether it be a divine Revelation or no, Reason must judge; which can never permit the mind to reject a greater Evidence, to embrace what is less evident, nor prefer less Certainty to the greater. There can be no Evidence,

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dence, that any traditional Revelation is of divine original, in the words we receive it, and the sense we understand it, so clear and so certain, as that of the Principles of Reason: And therefore, Nothing that is contrary to the clear and self evident dictates of Reason, has a right to be urged or assented to, as a matter of Faith, wherein Reason has nothing to do. Whatsoever is divine Revelation, ought to over-rule all our Opinions, Prejudices, and Interests, and hath a right to be received with a sull Assent. Such a Submission as this, of our Reason to Faith, takes not away the Land marks of Knowledge: This shakes not the foundations of Reason, but leaves us that use of our faculties, for which they were given us.

CHAP. XIX.

Of Enthusiasm.

Truth, ought in the first place to prepare his mind with a Love of it. For he that loves it not, will not take much pains to get it, nor be much concerned when he misses it. There is no body who does not profess himself a lover of truth, and that would not take it amiss to be thought otherwise of. And yet for all this, one may truly say, there are very sew lovers of truth for Truth's sake, even amongst those who persuade themselves that they are so. How a man may know whether he be so in earnest, is

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ing mark of it, viz. The not entertaining any Proposition with greater assurance than the proofs it is built upon will warrant. Whoever goes beyond this measure of Assent, it is plain, receives not Truth in the Love of it. For the evidence that any Proposition is true (except fuch as are felf-evident) lying only in the proofs a man has of it, whatever degrees of Affent he affords it beyond the degrees of that Evidence, it is plain all that furplufage of Affurance is owing to some other affection, and not to the love of Truth. Whatfoever credit we give to any Proposition more than it receives from the principles and proofs it supports itself upon, is owing to our indinations that way, and is fo far a derogation from the Love of Truth as fuch: Which, as it can receive to evidence from our Passions or Interests, so it should receive no tincture from them.

§ 2. The assuming an Authority of dictating to others, and a forwardness to prescribe to their opinions, is a constant concomitant of this bias and corruption of our Judgments. For how can it be otherwise, but that he should be ready to impose on others Belief, who has already imposed on his own?

§ 3. Upon this occasion I shall consider a third ground of Assent, which with some men has the same Authority as either Faith or Reason, I mean Enthusisim; which, laying by Reason, would set up Revelation without it. Whereby in effect it takes away both Reason and Revelation, and substitutes in the soom of it, the ungrounded fancies of a man's own brain, and assumes them for a foundation both of Osinion and Conduct.

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§ 4. Immediate Revelation being a much caffer way for men to establish their Opinions, and regulate their Conduct, than the tedious labour of firich Reafoning, it is no wonder that some have been very apt so pretend to it, especially in such of their Actions and Opinions as they cannot account for by the ordinary methods of Knowledge, and principles of Rea-Hence we fee that in all ages, men, in whom Melancholy has mixed with Devotion, or whose Conceit of themselves has raised them into an Opinion of a greater familiarity with God than is allowed others have often flattered themselves with a persuasion of an immediate Intercourse with the Deity, and frequent Communications from the divine Spirit,

§ 5. Their minds being thus prepared, whatever groundless Opinion comes to settle itself strongly upon their fancies, is an Illumination from the Spirit of God; and whatfoever odd action they find in themfelves a strong Inclination to do, that Impulse is concluded to be a Call or Direction from Heaven, and must be obeyed. This I take to be properly Enthusiasm, which though rising from the Conceit of a warmed or overweening Brain, works, where it once gets footing, more powerfully on the perfuasions and actions of men, than either Reason or Revelation, or both together; men being most forwardly obedient to the Impulses they receive from themselves. Strong Conceit, like a new Principle, carries all eafily with it, when got above Common Sense, and freed from all Restraint of Reason, and check of Reslection, it is heightened into a divine Authority, in concurrence with our own Temper and Inclination.

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§ 6. When men are once got into this way of immediate Revelation, of Illumination without Search, and of Certainty without Proof, it is a hard matter to get them out of it. Reason is lost upon them; they are above it: They see the Light insused into their Understandings, and cannot be mistaken; it is clear and visible there, like the light of bright Sunfhine, shows itself, and needs no other Proof, but its own Evidence: They feel the hand of God moving them within, and the Impulses of the Spirit, and cannot be mistaken in what they feel.

§ 7. This is the way of talking of these men: They are fure because they are fure: And their perhalions are right, only because they are ftrong in them. for when what they fay is stripped of the metaphor of feeing and feeling, this is all it amounts to. These men have, they say, clear light, and they see: bey have an awakened fense, and they feel: This annot, they are fure, be disputed them. But here et me ask: This feeing is it the perception of the Truth of the Proposition, or of this, that it is a Revelation from God? This feeling is it a Perception of an Inclination to do something, or of the Spiit of God moving that Inclination? These are two very different Perceptions, and must be carefully difinguished. I may perceive the Truth of a Proposiion, and yet not perceive that it is an immediate Retelation from God. Nay, I may perceive I came not wit in a natural way, without perceiving that it is a Revelation from God. Because there be Spirits, which, without being divinely commissioned, may exthe those ideas in me, and make their Connexion pertived. So that the Knowledge of any Proposition coming **(P)**

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coming into my mind, I know not how, is not a Perception that it is from God. But however it be called Light and Seeing; I suppose it is at most but Belief and Affurance. For where a Proposition is known to be true, Revelation is needless. If therefore it be a Proposition which they are persuaded but do not know to be true, it is not feeing but be What I fee, I know to be so by the Evi lieving. dence of the thing itself: What I believe, I take to be so upon the Testimony of another: But this Test timony I must know to be given, or else what ground have I of believing? I must see that it is God that reveals this to me, or else I see nothing. If I know not this, how great foever my Affurance is, it is groundless: Whatever Light I pretend to, it is bu Enthusiasm.

§ 8. In all that is of divine Revelation, there i need of no other Proof, but that it is from God For he can neither deceive nor be deceived. But how shall it be known that any Proposition in our mind is a Truth revealed to us by God? Here it is tha Enthusiasm fails of the Evidence it pretends to. Fo men thus possessed boast of a Light, whereby the fay they are brought into the Knowledge of this o that Truth. But if they know it to be a Truth they must know it to be so, either by its own self evidence or by the rational Proofs that make it out t be fo. If they know it to be a Truth either of these two ways, they in vain suppose it to be a Reve For thus all Truths, of what kind foever that men uninspired are enlightened with, come int their minds. If they fay they know it to be true because it is a Revelation from God, the reason good

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good: But then it will be demanded, how they know it to be a Revelation from God? If they fix by the Light it brings with it, I befeech them to confider, whether this be any more, than that it is a Revelation because they strongly believe it to be true. all the Light they speak of, is but a strong persuasion of their own minds that it is a Truth, which is a very unsafe ground to proceed on, either in our tenets or actions.

6 9. True Light in the mind is nothing else but the Evidence of the Truth of any Proposition: And if it be not felf-evident, all the Light it can have is from Clearness of those Proofs upon which it is recived. To talk of any other Light in the Underfanding, is to put ourselves in the dark, or in the power of the Prince of Darkness. For if strength of perfuasion be the Light which must guide us, how hall any one distinguish between the Delusions of Satan, and the Inspirations of the Holy Ghost?

§ 10. He therefore that will not give up himself to Delusion and Error, must bring this guide of his Light within to the trial. God when he makes the Prophet, does not unmake the Man. He leaves his faculties in their natural state, to enable him to judge of his Inspirations, whether they be of divine Original or no. If he would have us affent to the Truth of any Proposition, he either evidences that Truth by the usual methods of natural Reason, or elle makes it known to be a truth which he would have us affent to by his Authority; and convinces us that it is from him, by some marks, which Reason cannot be mistaken in. Reason must be our last Judge and Guide in every thing. I do not mean that

a Proposition revealed from God can be made out by natural Principles, and if it cannot, that then we may reject it: But consult it we must, and by it examine whether it be a Revelation from God or no: And if Reason finds it to be revealed from God, Reason then declares for it, as much as for any other Truth and makes it one of her Dictates. Every conceit that thoroughly warms our fancies must pass for an Inspiration, if there be nothing but the strength of our persuasions whereby to judge of them: If Reason must not examine their Truth by something extrinsical to the persuasions themselves, Inspirations and Delusions, Truth and Falsehood, will have the same measure, and will not be possible to be distinguished.

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§ 11. Thus we see the holy men of God, who had Revelations from God, had fomething else be sides that internal Light of Assurance in their own uninds, to testify to them that it was from God, They had outward figns to convince them of the Author of those Revelations. And when they were to convince others, they had a power given them to justify the truth of their commission from Heaven and by visible figns to affert the divine Authority of the message they were sent with. Moses saw the Bush burn without being confumed, and heard a voice out of it. God, by another miracle of his rod turn ed into a Serpent, affored him likewise of a power to testify his mission, by the same Miracle repeated before them to whom he was fent. This, and the like Instances to be found among the Prophets of old are enough to show, that they thought not an inward feeing, or persuasion of their own minds, a sufficien Evidence

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ficient idence Evidence without any other proof, that it was from God, though the Scripture does not every where mention their demanding or having such proofs.

§ 12. I do not deny that God can, or doth sometimes enlighten mens minds in the apprehending of certain Truths, or excite them to good actions by the immediate influence and affiltance of the Holy Spirit, without any extraordinary figns accompanying it. But in such cases too we have Reason and the Scripture, unerring rules, to know whether it be from God or no. Where the Truth embraced is consonant to the Revelation in the written Word of God: or the Action conformable to the Dictates of Right Reason, or Holy Writ, we run no risk in entertaining it as fuch; because, though perhaps it be not m immediate Revelation from God, extraordinarily eperating on our minds, yet we are fure it it warrant ed by that Revelation which he has given us of Truth. Where Reason or Scripture is express for any Opinion or Action, we may receive it as of divine Authority: But it is not the strength of our own persuasions which can by itself give it that stamp. The bent of our own minds may favour it as much is we please; that may show it to be a fondling of our own, but will by no means prove it to be an Offspring of Heaven, and of divine Original:

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CHAP. XX.

Of wrong Affent or Errour.

§ 1.

FRROUR is a Mistake of our Judgment, giving Affent to that which is not true. The reasons whereof may be reduced to these four: First, Want of Proofs. Secondly, Want of Ability to use them. Thirdly, Want of Will to use them. Fourthly, Wrong Measures of Probability.

§ 2. First, Want of Proofs: by which I do not mean only the want of those Proofs which are not to be had, but also of those Proofs which are in being, or might be procured. The greatest part of mankind want the conveniences and opportunities of making Experiments and Observations themselves, or of collecting the Testimonies of others, being enslaved to the necessity of their mean Condition, whose lives are worn out only in the Provisions for living. These men are, by the Constitution of human Affairs, unavoidably given over to invincible Ignorance of those Proofs, on which others build, and which are necessary to establish those Opinions. For having much to do to get the means of living, they are not in a Condition to look after those of learned and laborious Enquiries.

§ 3. It is true, that God has furnished men with faculties sufficient to direct them in the way they should take, if they will but seriously employ them that way, when their ordinary vocations allow them

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leifure. No man is fo wholly taken up with the attendance on the means of living, as to have no spare time at all to think on his Soud, and inform himself in matters of Religion, were men as intent on this, is they are on things of lower concernment. are none so enslaved to the necessity of life, who night not find many vacancies, that might be hulbandd to this advantage of their Knowledge.

Besides those already mentioned, there are or thers, whose largeness of fortune would plentifully enough supply books and other requisites for discovering of Truth, but they are cooped in close by the laws of their countries, and the first guards of those whose interest it is to keep them ignorant, lest, knowing more, they should believe the less in them. This is generally the case of all those who live inplaces where care is taken to propagate Truth without Knowledge, and more are forced, at a venture, to be of the religion of their country, and must therefore swallow down opinions, as filly people doempirick's pills, without knowing what they are made of, or how they will work.'

§ 4. Secondly, Want of Ability to use them. There: e many who cannot carry a Train of Confequences their heads, nor weigh exactly the preponderancy. f contrary Proofs and Testimonies Thele cannot fern that side on which the strongest Proofs lie; or follow that which in itself is the most probable Oinion. It is certain, that there is a wide difference mens Understandings, Apprehensions, and Reason. s, to a very great Latitude, so that one may, ithout doing Injury to mankind, affirm, that there la greater distance between some men and others,

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in this respect, than between some men and some beasts: But how this comes about is a Speculation, though of great Consequence, yet not necessary to our present Purpose.

Some, though they have opportunities and leifure emough, and want neither parts nor learning, nor other helps, are yet never the better for them, and never come to the Knowledge of several Truths that lie within their reach; either upon the account of their hot pursuit of Pleature, constant drudgery in Business, Leziness and Oscitancy in general, or a particular aversion for Books and Study: And some out of fear that an impartial Inquiry would not favour those Opinions, which best suit their Prejudices Lives, Designs, Interests, &c as many men forbeat to cast up their Accounts, who have reason to fear that their Affairs are in no very good Posture.

How men, whose plentiful fortunes allow them lei fure to improve their Understandings, can fatisf themselves with a lazy Ignorance, I cannot tell: Bu methinks they have a low Opinion of their Souls who lay out all their Incomes in Provisions for the Body, and employ none of it to procure the Mean and Helps of Knowledge. I will not here mentio how unreatonable this is for men that ever think of future State, and their Concernment in it, which n rational man can avoid to do sometimes: Nor sha I take notice what a shame it is to the greatest Con temners of Knowledge, to be found ignorant in thing they are concerned to know. But this, at least, worth the onfideration of those who call themselve Gentlemen; that however they may think Credit, Re 1pec

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mselve lit, Re spect spect, and Authority, the concomitants of their Birth and Fortune; yet they will find all these still carried away from them by men of lower Condition, who surpass them in Knowledge. They who are blind, will always be led by those that see, or else fall into the Ditch: And he is certainly the most subjected, the most enslaved, who is so in his Understanding.

§ 6 Fourthly, Wrong Measures of Probability; which are,

First, Propositions that are not in themselves certain and evident, but doubtful and false, taken for Principles. Propositions looked on as Principles, have so great an influence upon our Opinions, that it is usually by them we judge of Truth, and what is inconsistent with them is to far from paffing for probable with us, that it will not be allowed possible. The Reverence borne to these Principles is so great, that the Testimony, not only of other men, but the Evidence of our own Senses are often rejected, when they offer to vouch any thing contrary to these established Rules. The great Obstinacy that is to be found in men, firmly believing quite contrary Opinions, though many times equally abfurd, in the various Religious of mankind, are as evident a proof, as they are an unavoidable confequence of this way of Reasoning from received traditional principles: So that men will difbelieve their own eyes, renounce the Evidence of their Senies, and give their own Experience the Lie, rather than admit of any thing difagreeing with these facred Teners.

§ 7. Secondly, Received Hypotheses The difference between these and the former, is, that those who proceed by these, will admit of matter of sact, and

and agree with Dissenters in that; but differ in assigning of Reasons, and explaining the manner of Operation. These are not at that open defiance with their Senses as the former: They can endure to hearken to their Information a little more patiently; but will by no means admit of their Reports in the Explanation of things; nor be prevailed on by Probabilities, which would convince them, that things are not brought about iust after the same manner that they have decreed within themselves that they are.

§ 8. Thirdly, Predominant Passions or Inclinations. Let never fo much Probability hang on one fide of a covetous man's Reasoning, and money on the o. ther, it is easy to forsee which will prevail. Though men cannot always openly gainfay, or refift the force of manifest Probabilities, that make against them, yet yield they not to the Argument. Not but that it is the Nature of the Understanding, constantly to close with the more probable fide: But yet a man hath power to suspend and restrain its Enquiries, and not permit a full and fatisfactory Examination. Until that be done, there will be always these two ways left of evading the most apparent Probabilities.

§ 9. First, That the Arguments being brought in Words, there may be Fallacy latent in them; and the confequences being perhaps many in train, may be fome of them incoherent. There are few discourses fo short and clear, to which men may not, with fatisfaction enough to themselves raise this doubt, and from whose Conviction they may not without reproach of Difingenuity or Unreasonableness set them-

felves free.

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§ 10. Secondly, Manifest Probabilities may be eraded upon this Suggestion, that I know not yet all that may be faid on the contrary fide; And therefore, though a man be beaten, it is not necessary he should yield, not knowing what Forces there are in referve This is a refuge against conviction, so open and fo wide, that it is hard to determine, when 'a man is quite out of the verge of it. But yet ' there is some end of it; and a man having careful-' ly enquired into all the grounds of probability, may ' in most cases come to acknowledge, upon the whole ' matter, on which fide the probability rests : Where-'in the proofs are so cogent and clear, as to make ' the fact attested highly probable; neither is there ' sufficient ground to suspect, that there is either fal-' lacy of words, nor equally valid proofs, yet un-' discovered, latent on the other side: Nor, lastly, ' can there be any supposition that there is as fair ' testimony against, as for the matter of fast attested. In all fuch cases, I think it is not in any rational ' man's power to refuse his affent; in other less ' clear cases, I think it is in a man's power to suf-' pend his affent; and, perhaps, content himself with ' the proofs he has, if they favour the opinion that ' fuits with his inclination or interest, and so stop from farther fearch. But that a man should afford his affent to that side, on which the less pro-' bability appears to him, feems to me utterly impracticable, and as impossible, as it is to believe the ' fame thing probable and improbable at the same ' time.'

§ 11. Fourthly, Authority, or the giving up our Ment to the common received Opinions, either of our Friends

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Friends or Party, Neighbourhood or Country. How many men have no other ground for their Tenets, than the supposed Honesty or Learning, or Number of those of the same Profession? as if honest or bookish men could not err; or Truth were to be established by the Vote of the Multitude. Yet this with most men serves the Turn. All men are liable to Errour, and most men are in many points by Passion or Interest under temptation to it. This is certain, that there is not an Opinion so absurd, which a man may not receive upon this Ground. There is no Errour to be named, which has not had its Professors. And a man shall never want crooked Paths to walk in, if he thinks that he is in the right Way, wherever he has the Footsteps of others to follow.

§ 12. But, potwithstanding the great Noise that is made in the World about Errours and Opinions, I must do Mankind that right as to fay, there are not so many men in Errours and wrong Opinions as is commonly supposed: Not that I think they embrace the Truth, but indeed, because, concerning those Doctrines they keep fuch a Stir about, they have no Thought no 0pinion at all. For if any one should a little catechise the greatest part of the Partisans of most of the Sects in the World, he would not find concerning those Matters, they are fo zealous for, that they have any Opinions of their own: Much less would he have Reason to think, that they took them upon the Examination of Arguments, and Appearance of Probability. They are resolved to stick to a Party, that Education or Interest has engaged them in ; and there, like the common Soldiers of an Army, show their Courage and Warmth, as their Leaders direct, without

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without ever examining, or so much as knowing the Cause they contend for.

CHAP. XXI.

Of the Division of the Sciences.

A LL that can fall within the compass of Human M Understanding, being either, A, The Nature of Things, their Relations, and their Manner of Operation; or, 2dly, That which Man himself ought to do as a rational and voluntary Agent, for the attainment of any End, especially Happiness; or, adly. The ways and Means whereby the Knowledge of both of these are attained and communicated: I think Science may be properly divided into these three Sorts.

§ 2. First, The Knowledge of Things, their Constitutions, Properties, and Operations, whether material or immaterial: This, in a little more enlarged sense of the Word, I call oversing, or Natural Phile-Joshy. The end of this is bare speculative Truth, and whatfoever can afford the mind of man any fuch, falls under this Branch: Whether it be God himself, Angels, Spirits, Bodies, or any of their Affections, as Number, Figure, &c.

§ 3. Secondly, Hearting, the Skill of right applying our own Powers and Actions for the attainment of things good and useful. The most considerable under this head is Ethicks, which is the feeking out those Rules and Measures of human Actions, which lead to Happiness, and the Means to practise them.

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them. The end of this is not bare Speculation; but Right, and a Conduct suitable thereto.

the most usual being Words, it is aptly enough termed Logick: The business whereof is to consider the Nature of Signs, which the mind makes use of for the understanding of things, or conveying its Knowledge to others. Things are represented to the mind by ideas: And men's ideas are communicated to one another by articulate Sounds, or Words. The Consideration then of ideas and words, as the great Instruments of Knowledge, makes no despicable part of their Contemplation, who would take a view of human Knowledge in the whole Extent of it.

§ 5. This feems to me the first and most general, as well as natural Division of the Objects of our Understanding. For a man can employ his thoughts about nothing, but either the Contemplation of Things themselves for the Discovery of truth, or about the Things in his own power, which are his Actions, for the attainment of his own Ends; or the Signs the mind makes use of, both in the one and the other, and the right ordering of them, for its clearer In-All which Three, viz. Things as they. formation. are in themselves Knowable: Actions, as they depend on us in order to Happiness, and the right use of Signs, in order to Knowledge, being Toto Coelo different, they seemed to me to be the three great Provinces of the Intellectual World, wholly, separate, and distinct one from another.

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